The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 12, 1888.

The Week.

THE deadlock in the House of Representatives, caused by the filibustering on the Direct-Tax Refunding Bill, has taken the country quite as much by surprise as the sudden attack of "fits" in the Senate respecting silver. It is plain to everybody that the Direct-Tax Bill was not demanded by any considerable public sentiment in the North. The direct tax on the States was one of the costs of the war, and one of the very smallest of them. It amounted to about $17,000,000, while the income tax alone reached $61,000,000 in a single year. The attempt to return it to the rich States of the North, while defensible on strict legal and constitutional grounds, is unbecoming, to say the least, and is well calculated to excite a feeling of exasperation among the States which get no part of the money. Yet the practice of filibustering to defeat the will of the House is unmannerly, and in some sort revolutionary, and is quite as exasperating to the majority as the bill itself is to the minority. The situation is certainly one of much complexity, but we see no way out of it except by enforcing the right of the majority to govern. At the same time we think that it would have been much better if the Direct-Tax Bill had never been introduced.

The Senate on Thursday passed the Bond-Purchase Bill, having stricken out the whole of the text as it came from the House, and substituted first a clause merely interpreting the existing law authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to purchase bonds with his surplus money—interpreting it as a continuing authority not limited to the occasion which led to its passage in 1881; and, second, a clause requiring the Secretary to purchase and coin silver bullion to the amount of national-bank notes hereafter retired—this to be in addition to the amount required to be purchased and coined under the Bland act. Senator Sherman made a very strong speech against this amendment. His most telling argument was that this was mischievous and hasty and unnecessary legislation, and calculated to alarm the business community, and therefore to depress trade and industry. Mr. Allison sought to answer this perfectly correct statement of the situation by showing that the coinage of additional silver would be very small, and that it could have no baneful effect until the foreign exchanges turned against us. In this contention Mr. Allison was right, but the force of Mr. Sherman's objection was not lessened a jot thereby. It is true that the business community are alarmed by this sudden revival of the silver madness, unheralded by any public demand or agitation. It is a most unsettling vote that the Senate has given on these questions, and although the amount of concrete mischief that can be pointed out is small, the "want of confidence" on the part of the business public that it entails is large.

We repeat that there was no public demand or agitation on the silver question in any part of the country. Of course the silver-mining companies are always agitating to have the Government buy more of their stuff. Their Senators can always be depended on to put a rider of this sort on any bill that comes along which has a remote resemblance to the money question. Then, Senators like Beck are always ready to start an agitation which would not exist without the exercise of great wind-power on their part, to fool the "poor man" with the notion that he would be better off with a depreciated currency. Absolute silence and content pervaded the country as to this question until the present inflammation broke out in the Senate. The silver coinage was going on in excess of the wants of the public for currency purposes. Nobody was short of money who had anything to sell or any security to offer for the use of it. The only danger in the financial situation is the horrid Treasury surplus, the vortex that is sucking money out of business channels at the rate of eight or ten millions per month. When this condition of affairs is represented to the Congress in a temperate way by the President, the response of the Senate is, that he had better buy some more silver, although the Treasury has an unused surplus of $54,000,000, and is calling on Congress at every session for more vault-room to hold it. The opportunity is now offered to the President to rally the common sense of the country by a veto, and we hope he will not neglect it.

The House Committee on Revision of the Laws has reported in favor of an amendment to the Constitution providing for the election of United States Senators directly by the people, as State officers are chosen. The theory is that unfit millionaires could not then so easily buy seats, and that corporations would find it harder to send their agents to the Seate. There is a certain plausibility about this view, but there is another side to the case, which, upon examination, will be found much stronger. It is complained that unfit men get elections to the Senate under the system of legislative choice, but in order to justify a change, it would be necessary to show that only fit men get elected to State offices by the system of popular choice. As a matter of fact, everybody knows that it is on the whole easier for a man to capture, by purchase or intrigue, a party nomination which means an election to a Governorship, for example, when he only has to "fix" the caucuses which choose the delegates to a large State convention, than it would be if he had to submit h claims to a comparatively small body of legislators. It is hard enough, as everybody knows, to hold the average legislator to a sense of responsibility, but it is much easier than it is in the case of the average delegate to a convention. The legislator has to stand up and vote openly for a Senator, with the knowledge that his constituents have their eyes upon him; but the delegate is subject to no such scrutiny, and can suffer no such penalty for betrayal of his trust.

The Judiciary Committee of the House has made an adverse report upon a joint resolution providing for an amendment to the Constitution extending the term of the President from four years to eight, and making the incumbent ineligible to reëlection. The policy of extending the term either to six years or eight, and forbidding re election, has been canvassed for many years, but it appears to lose rather than gain in popular favor. Aside from all other arguments against such a change, there is one which is perfectly conclusive so long as we nominate Presidential tickets in the present way. Experience has shown that a President may die within a month of his inauguration, and the duties of the office thus devolve upon the Vice-President for almost the entire term. But the Vice-President is nominated without any reference to the possibility of his exercising the executive power for nearly four years, and almost invariably a man is chosen for the second place on the ticket who would not be thought of for the first place. After spending days, perhaps, in deciding upon the candidate for President, the weary delegates put up somebody for Vice-President in a hurry, and almost without thought. Mr. Arthur served as President nearly three years and a half because he had been hit upon as a candidate for Vice-President by a majority of the New York delegation, but nobody in the Convention ever thought of Mr. Arthur as a possible President. So long as we keep on selecting possible Presidents in this haphazard way, a proposition to lengthen the term means simply to aggravate the ever-present danger of having a man in the White House for a long time whom nobody thought of putting there when he voted for President.

Most of the talk about Mr. Cleveland's inability to accept a second term, because he said in his letter of acceptance that he thought a second term a bad thing, is rather sad stuff. Mr. Cleveland is not charged with the duty either of amending the Constitution or of changing party practice in the matter of Presidential eligibility. He may, like any other citizen, hold any opinion he pleases about the existing law or usage, and he may, like any other citizen, vote for a change, or labor to bring it about; but he has no right to try to impose his opinions on the rest of the community by refusing to accept any office which the majority of the voters ask him to take. If his views about second terms made it proper for him to decline a

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renomination on the ground that no one ought to serve more than one term, it would also make it proper for him, if he had the power, to prevent any one else from serving a second term, even if elected by a unanimous vote—that is, he would be justified in withdrawing from the public service, no matter how generally called for, anybody whose conduct he could control as he controls his own. But nobody has a right to express his opinions about constitutional questions in this way, any more than by resort to armed force. Mr. Cleveland's opinions about renominations are of just the same value as those of any other citizen, and no more. If he is called on to serve, he must serve, just as he would have to serve in the army in time of war, in spite of decided disapproval of the present law of compulsory retirement, or of the length of the term of enlistment.

The *Sun*, after quoting various newspapers on the question of Mr. Cleveland's accepting a nomination for a second term, in spite of the condemnation of a second term in his letter of acceptance, says:

"We have sufficiently exhibited the weakness of all these defences, volunteered in advance, of an act of self-stultification and selfish tergiversation which would be almost without a parallel in the history of our politics."

No, it would not, even taking the worst possible view of it, be without a parallel in the history of our politics. Your own history furnishes a good parallel to it, for you volunteered on the 29th of June, 1884, the following promise:

"Sooner than join in making James G. Blaine President of the United States, we would quit work, burn up our pen, and leave to other and perhaps rasher heads the noble controversies of politics and the defence of popular self-government."

In spite of this promise you did not "quit work or burn your pen, or leave to other and perhaps rasher heads the noble controversies of politics," etc., etc., but you did join in trying to make Blaine President, by running Butler as a candidate of your own. Moreover, Mr. Cleveland, in case he accepts a renomination, will yield to pressure from large bodies of his countrymen, while you failed to "burn your pen," etc., out of your own head, of your own mere motion, and without any regard to the effect of your breach of faith on anybody but yourself. You are consequently now in the position of a man who has made his escape by breaking his parole, or, in other words, of a journalistic outlaw whom a hostile contemporary like "Judas" might lawfully, in any forum, slay on sight.

The minority report of the Ways and Means Committee on the tariff made a touching appeal for more protection to lime. This article is produced by the paupers of Canada to some extent, and enters our country at a beggarly duty of 10 per cent. Our forests are not so dense as they once were, and it is well known that the burning of lime depends in some degree upon the supply of timber for fuel. What with the great supply of paupers and timber in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, the lime-burners of Maine are represented to be in a bad way, and to need the stimulus of a higher duty on their product, so that they may speedily cut down the remaining trees at a good profit and charge the extra cost to the house-builders along the Atlantic seaboard. And now another cloud appears on the horizon no bigger than a man's hand, but likely to spread over a large part of the firmament. It is the perilous condition of curled hair, the article which enters into the composition of mattresses, and is protected by a duty of 25 per cent. ad valorem, but which the Mills bill puts in the free list. One reason for not putting curled hair in the free list, as stated in a Philadelphia paper, is, that "curled hair is used almost entirely by the wealthier classes, and the proposed abolition of the duty would not, therefore, remove any burden from the mass of the people, but would simply benefit the manufacturers of the article in Europe at the expense of those in our own country." The answer to this is, that if the mass of the people are obliged to sleep on straw beds and corn-husk mattresses, like the pauper laborers of Europe, perhaps it would be well to give them a chance to buy hair mattresses by knocking off 25 per cent. of the cost of them.

The new ballot law in Wisconsin went into effect at the recent election in Milwaukee, and worked with entire success. The law, while not so comprehensive a measure as that proposed in New York, Massachusetts, and other States, is notable as the first application of the principle of ballot distribution by the State. It contains also novel provisions for securing entire secrecy in voting. It provides for a ticket-room and a voting-room at each election precinct, with a hall or passageway between. The voter receives his ballots from the sworn State election officers in the first room, which only one voter is allowed to enter at a time, and passes alone to the voting-room, where he deposits his ballot and goes out of a door provided for that purpose. No crowd of persons is allowed to collect within 100 feet of the polling-places, and no person is allowed to offer tickets or solicit votes within the same distance. The result at the recent election, which was an unusually exciting one, is thus described by the Milwaukee *Sentinel*:

"The system of voting in Milwaukee has proved a decided advantage over that which formerly prevailed. Under the old system, with such an issue as divided parties on Tuesday, there would inevitably have been more or less trouble at the polls. Voters would have been kept from the polls by intimidation, there would have been knock-downs and broken heads. All this was avoided by the arrangement that allowed each voter to select his ballot without interference, to enter alone the room where the ballot-box was kept, and which provided for his passing out immediately by another door than that at which he entered. It broke up the business of ticket-peddling, of browbeating ignorant voters, and secured a perfectly orderly and quiet election."

The full effect of the new suffrage amendment to the Rhode Island Constitution, which was adopted at the recent election, will not be felt for three years. It abolishes the property qualification which has heretofore existed, requiring every foreign-born citizen to own $134 worth of taxed property before being permitted to vote. There are over 31,000 foreign-born citizens in the State, but as they could not vote even if they were naturalized, only a few except those having the necessary property have taken the trouble to be naturalized. There were less than 5,000 who had paid the necessary taxes and were qualified to vote at the last election. About 4,000 others had been naturalized, but were not able to vote because of the lack of property. The remaining 24,000 have never been naturalized, but must be before they can register and vote. The law requires registration in December for voting in the following year, so that only the 4,000 already naturalized will be able to get on the registry list and vote next year. It is estimated that at the election three years hence at least 20,000 new voters will take part. This will be an increase of fully one-third in the total vote of the State.

While a place on the Supreme bench of the United States remains vacant, the court renders still another in its long series of recent decisions affirming State rights, and demonstrating that this ancient issue between parties is settled. A Pennsylvania statute makes it unlawful for any person to manufacture or sell any imitation of butter or cheese, and an oleomargarine manufacturer was convicted in the State courts of violating the act. He appealed to the Federal Supreme Court, on the ground that the statute was in violation of the Fourteenth Amendment, and that the article sold was not deleterious to the public health; but the highest tribunal sustains the judgment of the State court. The court holds that it is entirely within the police powers of the State to protect the public health, and that the questions whether the manufacture of oleomargarine is or may be conducted in such a way as to involve such danger to the public health as to require the suppression of the business rather than its regulation, are questions of fact and of public policy which belong to the legislative department to determine; in short, that the Federal authority cannot interfere. "State rights with a vengeance," the *Herald* not unnaturally styles this decision, for it may be doubted whether the power of the State has been more strongly affirmed in any previous decision. All the Republican judges concurred in this latest vindication of State rights, and the circumstance lends added weight to the recent remark of the Montgomery (Ala.) *Advertiser*, a Democratic newspaper published in the city where the Confederate Government was established, that Republican papers need not be concerned as to the appointment by a Democratic President of a State-rights judge, inasmuch as "a majority of the Republican judges have recently joined in support of as thorough State-rights opinions as any Confederate will ever advance."

An interesting and valuable article upon the way in which nominations for office are made in this city, is contributed by Mr.

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Abram C. Bernheim to the *Political Science Quarterly* for March. He shows from official statistics what an absurd travesty of a deliberative assembly the present primary is. Less than 8 per cent. of the Republicans who voted at the election in November last took part in the party's primaries. In some districts only 2 per cent. took part. The Democratic percentage was less than 10 per cent., so far as the figures to calculate it could be ascertained. Low as these percentages are, they do not tell the whole story. If the few men who came together had any free will of their own in making their nominations, the case would be bad enough, but, as a general thing, they have none whatever. They assemble and do the bidding of the district leader or boss in electing so-called "delegates" to the county convention. When the county convention assembles, its members simply await orders from the head boss of the city organization, and nominate the ticket which he and his assistants have agreed upon. So far as popular representation or deliberation enters into the final act of nomination, the whole proceeding might just as well have been done off-hand by the boss, without a primary or convention of any sort. It is time that the whole system were abolished. We might as well have the nominations made openly by committees of each party, without circumlocution of any sort. The only check which we have upon nominations is the power of defeating those which are unusually bad. It is useless to hope for improvement of the primaries. Respectable people have been importuned for years to go into them, but very few will do so. Mr. Bernheim shows that the new law for the regulation of the primaries is practically a dead letter on the statute-book, as it was foreordained to be.

The second stage in the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy strike has been reached by an offer of the strikers "to go back in a body." This usually comes after three or four weeks of subsistence on the funds of the union. After this comes the offer to go back individually as soon as there are vacancies, in case the strikers are not "blacklisted"; and lastly the strike is declared "off," and the strikers are left to find employment anywhere they can, and the managers return to their comfortable homes and get their bank books balanced. The latest hope was that, after the raising of the switchmen's "boycott," the C., B. and Q. would be so overwhelmed with business that the inefficiency of the new hands would be thoroughly revealed, and then something would happen. There is something pathetic about the childishness of all this.

There is nothing particularly interesting in Jacob Sharp's career as an individual. He rose into prominence and wealth through the qualities which in this country so often stand "the poor boy" in good stead. He was hardly to blame for having so little political conscience, because he had had but little teaching of any sort in his youth, and in his manhood found that most of the people with whom he had to do had their price. Politicians and office-holders were to him what the robber barons on the Rhine were to the peaceful traders passing down the river—people who had to be "squared" if any business was to be done. This view of life, if he had stuck to it boldly to the end, would probably have carried him through his Broadway railroad troubles with much less damage to health and character. Unluckily for him, he abandoned it, or tried to conceal it, before the Senate Committee of Investigation. If he had there frankly confessed that he had bribed the Aldermen as the only way to carry out an undoubted public improvement which he had long had at heart, we believe he would have won public indulgence, if not sympathy. But his cynical and plainly perjured denials, and his fierce defiance of everybody who maintained that municipal councillors ought not to sell city franchises and pocket the money, raised a storm of indignation which subjected him in his old age to the humiliation and anxiety of a protracted criminal trial and long imprisonment, and almost surrounded his deathbed with the police. The story of his life is, on the whole, a pitiful one, the moral of which every one can draw for himself.

What probably most interests those who spend any reflection on it is the question, whether this city is or is not becoming a less promising field for the activity of that curious combination of jobber and politician of which Tweed and Sharp were prominent types. We think on the whole that the opportunities of such men have greatly diminished, and are diminishing. There was steady deterioration in city politics after the adoption of universal suffrage in 1846, down to 1870, beginning with a Mayor like Fernando Wood, and ending with one like Oakey Hall. Since the downfall of the Tweed Ring the progress has been on the whole upward. The Mayors have been respectable and improving, and the list of things the Aldermen have to sell has been steadily cut down. Sharp's exploit led to their being deprived of the last valuable thing they had in stock, and undoubtedly aided in the election of the present Mayor, who, with all his faults, must be admitted to be probably the highest type of man we have had in that place for half-a-century—the most civilized and enlightened—without meaning to be in any way disrespectful to some of his immediate predecessors. The government of the city is now lodged in a body of men—the heads of departments, familiarly known as "the Mayor's Cabinet"—who are probably as competent for their work as any similar body in the world, or would be if it were not for the legislative interference at Albany.

Mr. Balfour apparently does not make much progress in Ireland, judging from the doings on Sunday. One great object of the Coercion Act is, of course, to make people either afraid to hold meetings or unwilling to hold them. There appears, however, to be no difficulty in getting up a meeting anywhere, and what the police do is simply to prevent any speaking, and after some fisticuffs and cudgel-play and bayonet-charges the crowd disperses, but it disperses in an exasperated, uncowed frame of mind. In fact, the experience of every month shows that the only true way to produce the appearance of tranquillity in Ireland at which the present Ministry aims, is the use of firearms on the crowds. Irishmen will not assemble in crowds if they are sure to be raked with musketry or artillery, but they will assemble as long as they have nothing to fear but fights with the police. But Mr. Balfour dare not use firearms, and so the silly game goes on as it has gone on for one hundred years.

The opinion of some of the best observers in England is that war in eastern Europe is among the strong probabilities of the present summer. The intrigues of Russia in Rumania indicate clearly enough that she is trying to provide a safe passage for her troops through the Principality, as in 1877, and the confusion in France seems to promise a situation from which both the friends and enemies of the Republic may be glad to seek refuge in a foreign war. Germany is but ill prepared for such a conflict, owing to the condition of the Emperor's health, the general ignorance as to the real character and capacity of his successor, the age and growing infirmity of Bismarck, and the disappearance from high places of nearly all the military strategists whose powers were tested in 1870. Another sign of the times is the increasing turbulence of the Bosnian Slavs, who have several large bands in the field holding their own against the Austrian troops, some say under Servian, but others, and probably the better informed, under Russian instigation, as part of the Panslavic movement.

The rumors of Prince Bismarck's approaching resignation of the Chancellorship apparently find some credence in Europe. It would undoubtedly be a serious matter, in the existing state of European politics and of the German Emperor's health — so serious that one can hardly believe that it will be accepted, or that he will insist on it. One of the peculiarities, and it may be added misfortunes, of his policy and position is that the public knows of nobody fit to take his place. He has suppressed ruthlessly not only all opponents, but all competent critics of himself or his work. He has, in other words, no political heirs. Consequently, search for a successor would literally have to be made. Under these circumstances it is hardly likely that as loyal a man as he is would, in spite of his seventy-three years, desert his post when the throne is occupied by an invalid, in the face of serious foreign complications. The latest despatches, in fact, announce that he will not resign, and that the proposed marriage of the Princess Victoria with Prince Alexander, formerly of Bulgaria, which is supposed to have offended him, is postponed.

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THE PRESIDENT AND HIS PARTY IN NEW YORK.

After the action of the Democratic State Committee on Thursday there is likely to be little further dispute about the popularity of the President with his party in this State. His supporters controlled the Committee easily, and had this city fixed upon as the place for holding the State Convention because they regarded it as the stronghold of Cleveland sentiment. The ballots showed, what was pretty well known before, that the County Democracy and Tammany, as well as the Brooklyn Democratic organization, are unitedly and heartily in favor of the President's renomination. In fact, so prevailing was the sentiment in the Committee in regard to his candidacy, that the last shadow of the Hill boom faded away on the spot. It is generally believed now that a solid Cleveland delegation will be sent from this State to the National Democratic Convention, and that his unanimous renomination will follow as a matter of course.

All the politicians of the local Democratic organizations appear to be warmly in favor of the President. Tammany and County Democracy leaders vie with one another in their vows of allegiance to him, and in their predictions of the enormous majority which a united Democracy will roll up for him in this city in November. "Paddy" Divver goes on the record with the prediction that the majority will be a "cold one of 70,000." Others are less sanguine, but it is very evident that the party has an unshakable belief in its ability to poll a sufficiently large vote in this city and Brooklyn to overcome by many thousands any Republican majority which can be polled in the other parts of the State. There can be no question that there is a strong basis for this belief. It is many years since the local Democrats have been so thoroughly harmonious as they are at present. In 1874, when they were thoroughly united in support of Tilden for Governor, they had a plurality of nearly 43,000. When they supported him unitedly for President two years later, they increased this plurality to nearly 54,000. They split in 1879, when John Kelly ran for Governor against Robinson. Tammany then gave the former 43,000 votes, and Robinson polled 60,000, having a plurality in the city of 14,000. During Kelly's career as boss, the Tammany strength remained pretty steadily at about 40,000. Both factions united with more or less heartiness in support of Hancock, and gave him a plurality of 41,000. When Cleveland ran for Governor in 1882, they were also united, and gave him a plurality of 77,000, but their total vote was only a shade larger than it had been for Hancock. The difference in plurality was caused by the drop of the Republican vote for Folger, which was nearly 34,000 less than Garfield received.

John Kelly's quarrel with Cleveland, which began soon after the accession of the latter to the Governorship, was at white heat when the Presidential campaign of 1884 opened. No competent person can examine the district returns of votes cast in this city for Blaine and Cleveland that year, and not reach the conclusion that the larger part of Tammany's 40,000 votes went directly to Blaine. As a consequence, the Democratic plurality in the city went down to 43,000. Union upon Hill in the following year carried it only to 48,000, there being still a split on local and county nominees. In 1886 the Labor party put in its appearance, and drew from the Democrats probably 40,000 of the 68,000 votes which it polled, reducing the Democratic plurality to 22,000. Last year the Labor vote dropped to 37,000, and the Democratic plurality rose to a higher point than it had touched for several years, 52,000. That was cast for the State ticket. On the local ticket, Col. Fellows's unsavory candidacy commanded only 22,000 plurality.

That there is formidable strength in a united and harmonious Democracy in this city no one can deny. As between two such candidates as Cleveland and Blaine, without the treachery practised by Kelly in 1884, it is not at all rash to suppose that a plurality might be rolled up which would approach very nearly to Divver's sanguine figures. There is no danger whatever of such treachery apparent now, and there is another important change in the local situation, which has happened during the past year, that will also greatly help the Democrats. We refer to the disintegration which has taken place in the Republican Machine. That organization is the mere shadow of what it was four years ago, and while a large fund might restore some of its former vigor, there is little chance that it can do anything like such service in keeping down the Democratic majority as it did then.

There is ground, therefore, for the high Democratic hopes of a large majority here, but there is another side to the picture which it will be wise to consider. There can be no disguise of the fact that the warmth with which all the most objectionable elements of the Democratic party are supporting the President gives a good many of his non-partisan friends unpleasant emotions. Especially is this the case when the facts about the civil-service-reform work of the Administration are considered. Strong as the united Democratic organizations in New York are, they are not invincible. They have failed more than once to carry the State without the aid of independent voters, and they may fail again. It would be a grave mistake for the President or any other candidate to base his hopes entirely upon their support. With an objectionable Republican candidate like Blaine in the field, there might be little risk, but with a candidate on that side in whom the independent voters had confidence, Divver's 70,000 plurality would suffer a dangerous shrinkage.

HEWING TO THE CENTRE.

Nothing that the Republican majority in the Senate has recently done deserves so much praise as the appointment of a committee to investigate the condition of the civil service. There have been inquiries in this field before now, notably in Indiana and Maryland, but they have been conducted by volunteers, like the civil-service-reform associations, which had no power to compel the attendance of witnesses or the production of papers and documents, and whose reports, therefore, might be safely disregarded, or even pooh-poohed. This time we have a tribunal before which witnesses must appear, and by which the facts can be brought out; and no matter how much bias it may put into its report, the public will form its judgment on the testimony. The inquiry, too, has been very properly begun in the Philadelphia Post-office, where, unless rumor has been more than usually untrustworthy, the disregard of the President's promises and professions with regard to the tenure of office has been, ever since the present Postmaster came into office, flagrant, persistent, and audacious. The testimony already produced there is very damaging, but we will not comment on it, because it is thus far *ex parte*. It is the testimony for the most part of employees dismissed without notice or cause assigned, and, as we all know, there is generally another side to the stories which such witnesses tell.

But we are not inclined to incredulity in this case, because it is not a solitary case. We know as well as we can know anything which has not been proved to demonstration, that the abuses which exist in the Philadelphia Post-office also flourish in many other places, and that all attempts to get them checked or even investigated by the Administration have failed; and not only this, but that the spoilsmen have in every direction become increasingly bold and reckless as the time draws near when President Cleveland is likely to ask the American people to pass a judgment on the manner in which he has fulfilled the solemn pledges of his party platform, of his letter of acceptance, and of his inaugural address. All the efforts of those who supported him simply as a reformer in 1884 to procure inquiry or redress either as regards the Post-office, or Land Office, or Indian Bureau, have thus far been unsuccessful, and yet in all these spheres the scandals have been numerous, have increased as time has gone on, are, to the best of our knowledge and belief, worse now than they have been at any time since 1884, and have become so in the face of this most solemn declaration made by the President in front of the Capitol on the 4th of March, 1885:

> "The people demand reform in the administration of the Government and the application of business principles to public affairs. As a means to this end, civil-service reform should be in good faith enforced. Our citizens have the right to protection from the incompetency of public employees, who hold their places solely as the reward of partisan service, and from the corrupting influence of those who promise, and the vicious methods of those who expect, such rewards. And those who worthily seek public employment have the right to insist that merit and competency shall be recognized instead of party subserviency or the surrender of honest political belief."

At this moment pressure of the most extraordinary kind is being brought to bear on the Custom-house in this city, by Assistant-Secretary Maynard, to compel the offi-

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cers to do things which he well knows would violate the President's pledges, degrade the public service, and debauch the party in power. Remonstrance and entreaty have done all they can do, which is simply nothing, to arrest this downward progress.

We are therefore glad we are now going to have official investigation, and that the conduct of it is in hostile hands. The evil is too deep-seated to be fully laid bare by a friendly knife. We trust the Committee will take the New York Custom-house on their way, and hew to the centre here also, no matter where the chips fly. That the Republicans should think they can damage their opponents by inquiring how far the service of the Government has been used for partisan purposes, is surely a most encouraging sign of the times. Five years ago Senator Hale himself would have considered the appointment of a committee for any such purpose a most ridiculous thing, and would probably have asked with amusement why the civil service should not be used for partisan purposes. We have made wonderful advances since then, and we shall see now whether we cannot make Democratic politicians of their very vices "frame a ladder," as the poet said, by treading

"Beneath their feet each deed of shame."

THE SUPPRESSED VOTE IN MASSACHUSETTS.

REPUBLICAN organs at the North for a long time past have been saying a great deal about "the suppressed vote" at the South. Their custom is to take certain Congressional districts or States at the North in which both parties are thoroughly organized and bring out their full strength at every election, and contrast their large votes with the small totals in certain Congressional districts or States at the South, where the Republican organization has gone to pieces since it lost the Federal offices, and where consequently not even the Democrats need to turn out in large numbers in order to carry the day. The difference between these totals is treated as "the suppressed vote," and it is held that the representation in Congress and in the Electoral College of such Southern States ought to be cut down, in order to establish an equality in suffrage between the North and the South.

Turn about is fair play, and it is time to point out that if a small vote means a suppressed vote, and ought to be punished by a reduction of representation, the North also must suffer. Every candid person will of course admit that if there is a Northern State with a small negro population in which men do not vote so generally as they do in a Southern State having a large negro population, "something ought to be done about it," to use the common expression of the Republican organs regarding the South. There is such a State, and circumstances render its case conspicuous.

The last census gave Massachusetts 1,783,085 people, of whom all but 19,303 were white. At the same time Florida had 269,493 people, of whom 126,888, or nearly one-half, were colored. The Congressional apportionment gives Florida two Congressmen, and Massachusetts twelve. At the last election for Congressmen in Florida there were cast 21,882 votes in the First District and 34,895 in the Second—a total of 56,777, or an average of 28,388 for each district. At the same election in Massachusetts the total vote cast in the First District was only 16,071, and in all twelve districts 245,304, or an average of but 20,442 for each district. In other words, while it took 34,895 votes to elect a Congressman in one district of Florida, 16,071, or less than one-half as many, sufficed to elect a Congressman in one district of Massachusetts; and while in the whole State of Florida it took an average of 28,388 to elect a Congressman, it required an average of only 20,442 votes to elect a Congressman in Massachusetts.

The injustice of the matter appears more clearly the further the examination is carried. Take, for instance, Duval County in Florida, which has a decided preponderance of negroes in its total population of 19,430. At the election of 1886 Duval County cast 4,910 votes. Take, now, Barnstable County in Massachusetts, which has only 420 negroes among its 31,797 people. It is obvious that the total vote of Barnstable County ought to bear the same proportion to the total vote of Duval County that their respective populations bear to each other; or, stated according to the rule of three, 19,430 : 31,797 :: 4,910 : 8,035. But in point of fact only 2,713 votes were cast in Barnstable County, or but a trifle more than one-third of the number which ought to have been cast. It is clear that nearly two-thirds of the vote of Barnstable County was suppressed, but the full enormity of the offence does not appear until one reflects that by this suppression every man who does vote in the Massachusetts county really exercises three times as much power at the polls as every man who votes in the Florida county. The disparity is not so great, taking the whole of each State, but still it is serious enough to demand remedy. It has been shown that it takes on the average 28,388 votes to elect a Congressman in Florida, and of course it ought to take at least as many on the average to elect a Congressman in Massachusetts. But in point of fact the suppressed vote in Massachusetts was so large that an average of only 20,442 votes elected a Congressman. The result is that a total vote in Massachusetts of only 245,304 elected twelve Congressmen, whereas the Florida ratio entitles the State to only nine. In other words, through the suppression of votes Massachusetts gets three Congressmen to whom she has no right if held to the standard of Florida.

Nor is the question one which concerns Florida and Massachusetts alone. The whole country is interested. The representation of a State in the Electoral College equals the number of its Senators and Representatives combined; that is, Florida has four electoral votes and Massachusetts fourteen. But if the suppressed vote in Massachusetts is so large that she is entitled to only nine representatives in Congress, she ought to have only eleven votes in the Electoral College. This is a matter that concerns not merely the negroes of Florida, who are defrauded of their just rights by the white men of Massachusetts, but the whole nation as well. It is a gross outrage that Massachusetts should have fourteen votes in the election of a President when she is really entitled to only eleven. "Something ought to be done about it," and we feel sure that it is only necessary to bring the subject to the attention of Mr. George F. Hoar to secure an immediate cutting down to its just limits of the unfair power which Massachusetts now wields in Congress and in the Electoral College.

BUSINESS SUCCESS AND FAILURE.

MR. JOSEPH H. WALKER of Worcester, Mass., recently delivered a "practical talk" before the Young Men's Christian Association of that city, which, although entirely local in its subject, contained a great deal of matter that is of general interest. Mr. Walker is an old resident of Worcester, and he gave a condensed narrative of his observations among the business men of the place, the special value of which consisted in the statistics that he had compiled, covering a period of nearly half a century. As Worcester is an old city in a long-settled State, the fluctuations of business are naturally less than in the new cities of the younger States at the West, and a study of the fortunes of business men in such a place therefore shows the normal tendency of things in a conservative and prosperous community.

Mr. Walker began by citing facts which show how brief is the average duration of business enterprises. He picked out 56 of the more prominent men of 1845, and found that one-fifth of them were out of business within five years, two-fifths in ten years, and three-fifths in fifteen years. These, however, were a selected set, who undoubtedly make a more favorable showing than would the whole class, and Mr. Walker thinks that of every hundred men in business in 1845, 25 were out in five years, 50 in ten years, and 67 in fifteen years.

Most of these disappearances mean simply failures. Mr. Walker has traced the history of individuals engaged in the leading manufacturing industries of Worcester since 1840. Of those so engaged in that year he finds that 14 failed, and 14 died or retired with property. Of the same class in 1850, 41 failed, and 30 died or retired with property. Of the 1860 class, 43 failed, and 60 died or retired with property. These were, as before, the picked men among the manufacturers—those who conducted their business under exceptionally favorable circumstances—and the showing is undoubtedly far more favorable than it would be for business men of all sorts, doing business on a scale large or small. Accurate statistics for the whole class are nowhere accessible, but there has long been an agreement among competent judges in all parts of the country that 90 per cent. of all men who try to do business on their own account fail of success, while some put the proportion as high as 95 per cent. Mr. Walker's discovery that this

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is true of half or more of the favored number whose careers he has traced, sustains the theory that fully nine-tenths of all fail.

That wealth does not, as a rule, long remain in the families of those who acquire it, is clearly shown by Mr. Walker's investigations. There were 30 prominent manufacturers in 1840—the "capitalists" of that day—of whom 14 either died or retired with property, but only 3 of the sons of the 30 now have any property or died leaving any. There were 75 manufacturers in 1850, of whom 30 either died or retired with property, but only 6 of the sons of the 75 now have any property or died leaving any. There were 107 manufacturers in 1860, of whom 60 died or retired with property, but only 8 of the sons of the 107 now have any property or died leaving any.

It naturally follows that the business men of the present generation in Worcester include but a very small number of men who are sons of the business men of a generation ago. In 1878 there were 176 individuals engaged in 10 of the leading manufacturing industries, and only 15 of these 176 were themselves sons of manufacturers. The proportion proved to be almost the same during the early portion of the period, but the fact was not so striking or significant when so many branches of manufacturing industry were new as it is now.

It is a corollary of this that the business men of to-day are the poor workingmen of a few years ago, who have pushed themselves to the front by their energy and industry. It will surprise nobody to learn that, of the 30 manufacturers of 1840, 28 began as journeymen. But it will surprise many people, who have been told that the poor man no longer has a chance, to find that the proportion was quite as great a generation later, no less than 161 of the 176 manufacturers of 1878 having begun as journeymen. Nearly half of them went into Worcester from farms, and most of the rest were the sons of machinists, carpenters, blacksmiths, etc.

It is much to be wished that the labor agitators, from Henry George down, would study and digest such figures as these, and then tell the workingmen what they signify. The labor agitator is constantly talking about the "bloated capitalists," and cultivating the idea among workingmen that employers constitute a caste of wealth. The truth is, that 90 or 95 per cent. of all capitalists—that is, men who carry on business upon their own account—fail; a large proportion of them after a long and melancholy struggle to keep their heads above water and pay the wages of the men whom they employ, and who never suffer one-tenth the frequent anxiety of the employer, wondering all the week where he is going to get the money to pay them Saturday night. The labor agitator—even so intelligent a man as Henry George—is constantly talking about the impossibility of the workingman's forcing his way among the capitalists. The truth is, that the capitalists of to-day are themselves the workingmen of twenty-five years ago, as the workingmen of to-day will be the capitalists of twenty-five years hence.

MR. ARNOLD'S DISCOMFORT.

MR. MATTHEW ARNOLD'S article on "Civilization in the United States," as it appeared in the last number of the *Nineteenth Century*, Mr. Smalley, the London correspondent of the *Tribune*, introduced to the American public on Sunday week with a somewhat amusing wail of mingled sorrow and indignation. The subject as Mr. Arnold gives it out, "Civilization in the United States," or, as he explains it, "the success of the Americans in solving the human problem," is really a tremendous one, which one would hardly expect a man of Mr. Arnold's intellectual experience to attack in sixteen pages of a monthly review. If we might be allowed to amend the title, we should call the article, "Why I Was Uncomfortable in the United States." We are all the better pleased with this suggestion because he gives as his reason for writing, or rather as an incentive to writing, the article, the fact that Sir Lepel Griffin, "a very acute and distinguished Indian official," had also published the opinion "that there is no country calling itself civilized where one would not rather live than in America, except Russia," meaning by "one," of course, Sir Lepel himself.

This deliverance seems to have made such an impression on Mr. Arnold that he resolved to do now what he had thought of postponing—make an inquiry into the nature and defects of American civilization. And yet, a little further on, he reveals the fact that he saw very clearly what the cause of Sir Lepel's dissatisfaction with the civilization of the United States was. It was neither more nor less than the absence of those "comforts and conveniences of life" which "men of the professional and official class in England, who do the most part of her literature and journalism," have provided for them in England at very small expense, or, in other words, at prices suited to incomes of "from four to fifteen hundred [pounds] a year," and which in America can only be had by the very rich—such as clubs, hansom cabs, porters at railway stations, tailors, and mercers. When a man of Sir Lepel Griffin's class, Mr. Arnold naïvely adds, "is passing judgment on a country's civilization, points of this kind crowd to his memory and determine his sentence." So that really what Sir Lepel ought to have called his book was also, "Why I was Uncomfortable in America."

Nothing, however, but a lack of humor ever allows a man to present his own discomforts as a traveller to the world as his "judgment on a country's civilization." The judgment of a man who takes himself so seriously as this is, in fact, of little or no value on any subject but his special work. No one with a real capacity for generalization or a real sense of proportion would have ventured to lay Sir Lepel's book before the world as a contribution to political or social philosophy. That Mr. Arnold should have taken it as such, and charged himself with the duty of prosecuting the inquiry on which Sir Lepel entered, shows, we fear, that same deficiency of the humorous faculty which led "the acute and distinguished Indian official" to print with much solemnity conclusions about American civilization drawn from the expensiveness of its clothes, clubs, and cabs.

We are far from denying, however, that such books as Sir Lepel Griffin's and such articles as Mr. Arnold's are interesting and instructive. Every sensible man likes to hear how a distinguished Indian official, or an Englishman of the professional class and official class, who "has been at the public schools and universities," if he writes or talks reasonably well, finds life and manners in this or any other country, and to hear him tell what he enjoyed or admired, what offended his taste or excited his reprobation; but he must do it without solemnity. He must not sell figs in the name of the Prophet. That Sir Lepel Griffin would not like to live in the United States is a fact; but it is not a great or pregnant fact. To get any sociological nutriment whatever out of it, one has to know Sir Lepel Griffin, for he may be a man who not only would be uncomfortable in the United States or in Russia, but is uncomfortable wherever he goes. We have known Anglo-Indian officials who never could be happy even in England.

Everybody who is in the habit of looking at Mr. Arnold as a social and political philosopher, as well as a brilliant literary critic, will regret that he should have attempted an examination of American civilization in a short article on the Griffin plan. He was, like Griffin, uncomfortable in the United States. The sources of his discomfort, it is true, were different from Griffin's, and for the most part more serious; but we really must not be asked in this brief and peremptory way to pronounce American civilization a failure because Mr. Arnold did not like the American landscape, or the climate, or the restlessness of the farmers, or the plainness of the cities, or the absence of "cathedrals, parish churches, and castles of the Catholic or feudal age," or the odious names of the new Western towns, or the absence of "distinction" among the men. It is, perhaps, unfortunate that such things should be, but a real philosopher does not make too much of them, or produce them with too much preface. Mr. Arnold's well-known picture of English society—"an upper class materialized, a middle class vulgarized, and a lower class brutalized"—shows under what extremely unfavorable social conditions a country may be great and happy and highly civilized. A foreign philosopher visiting England and witnessing the condition of these classes of the population as described by Mr. Arnold, might well feel justified in taking an extremely gloomy view of England as a place of residence for men of intellectual tastes, and yet we know that tens of thousands of them find great comfort in that island, and would not quit it though the cab fares and the tailors' bills went up 100 per cent.

Mr. Arnold, too, is very much troubled by the want of native criticism of American defects. He says there are "plenty of cultivated, judicious, and delightful individuals" here,

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but they all keep silent about the national faults. Supposing this to be true, in the broad way in which Mr. Arnold states it, is this not also a defect to which a foreigner, and especially an Englishman, should be very indulgent? We do not think it is true as Mr. Arnold states it. There is a great deal of criticism by Americans of American morals and manners, but no native criticism ever satisfies a foreigner. He always wants it laid on stronger, and is displeased if it is tempered by any perception of countervailing virtues. The way the English press treats the conduct of Englishmen in dealing with other and especially weaker communities, for instance, is never what foreign critics think it ought to be. There are reserves and omissions and qualifications in it which make Americans and Frenchmen and Germans swear with indignation, and yet, in spite of it all, it is the general belief that English civilization improves. It is not every one, as human nature goes, who enjoys, as Mr. Arnold and Mr. Ruskin do, speaking their mind freely and incessantly to the people among whom they live about their faults and follies. Such men are doubtless a precious possession to any community, but they will always be scarce, and have to be amazingly clever not to become insufferable bores. There is probably not one of the thousand agencies of human culture which accomplishes so little as lectures from censorious sages.

Mr. Arnold's attack on the American press touches on what all foreigners of distinction find the greatest mystery and nuisance of American life. For the last fifty years the newspapers have been the first thing which attracts their attention when they land, and which during their stay here most distinctly represents to them the national taste and manners. "The absence of truth and soberness in them, the poverty in serious interest, the personality and sensation-mongering, are," he says, "beyond belief." This is undoubtedly what a very large body of the most intelligent and cultivated Americans say of the newspapers, and it is no wonder that a foreign critic, who suffered severely from their brutality when he was here, should say it also. But here again it does not do to generalize too sweepingly. It is not true of the American press as a whole, and when true of particular newspapers is almost always the result of the personal peculiarities of the editor. For reasons which we have not space to discuss here, journalism in the United States has until recently been one of the neglected callings, which made no serious drafts on the talents and cultivation of the country, and of which the pecuniary possibilities were first made plain by a man of very low character. He may be said to have created "the American newspaper" as the world knows it, and to have given it a stamp and tone from which it has not yet worked free; but to conclude that it will never become more sober-minded, more serious in its interests, and more careful about accuracy, and more closely allied to the intellectual life of the country, is to deny one of the plainest facts of American history, and that is, that there is no department of human activity in which progress in the United States is not constant and steady, though at particular points not always very perceptible.

"For while the tired waves, vainly breaking,
Seem here no painful inch to gain,
Far back, through creeks and inlets making,
Comes silent, flooding in, the main."

PARLIAMENT TILL EASTER.

LONDON, March 29, 1888.

THE Easter holidays have come, and the Government may look with complacency on the record of the last six weeks. The Conversion Bill has already been passed into an act, with an assured prospect of success for the great financial operation which is its object. The Local Government Bill, a measure of the first magnitude and importance, has made an unusually fair start, and, though the signs of reviving trade are still faint and uncertain, the Government have been able to come to Parliament with a budget showing a larger surplus than the Chancellor of the Exchequer has had at his disposal for a good many years. The position of all these measures is favorable, after making every allowance for the defects they contain and the dangers they may run.

The credit of the financial proposals, so far as they are ultimately successful, will belong, of course, to Mr. Goschen. Those who doubt the correctness of his published opinions as to the effect of the appreciation of gold upon trade and prices, may not regard him as a trustworthy guide in the more difficult problems of political economy; but all the world was prepared to find in him a capable Chancellor of the Exchequer. His name, moreover, may be justly associated with the reform of local government also, because, when he was the first President of the Local Government Board, created in 1871, he did much to elucidate the principles on which reform should proceed, and reform in this direction has ever since been a definite aim of the party to which he then belonged. I believe the Liberals as a body recognize with pleasure that the finances are in the hands of an able man who knows his business, and whose administrative powers were too long lost to the country, even though on most political questions they find in him, to say the least, a very determined opponent.

Whatever interest may attach to the measures I have mentioned, they have not, in the eyes of many critics, redeemed the session up to the present time from the imputation of dulness. To this charge I cannot subscribe. It is true that, with the exception of one or two nights during the debate on the address, there have been no heated and angry discussions. But this very change in the temper of the House is a matter of great importance and of good augury—I wish one could dare to assume that it will be permanent; and there are certain other aspects in which the proceedings of Parliament have been specially significant and interesting. The new Procedure Rules have hitherto been a great success. The two important rules are the Closure Rule which was passed last year, and the suspension of business at midnight. It is by the combination of these two rules that the improvement has been effected. The midnight rule presses somewhat hardly on private members' bills, which often found their only chance in the small hours of the morning. But if the difficult problem could be solved of making some selection among these bills, which are now left to a most unsatisfactory system of ballot, more would be gained than has been lost by the new rule. The prudence of making the discussion of the new rules the first business of the session was questioned by the Opposition leaders, though they undertook that, so far as their authority extended, no factious opposition should be offered; but the event has justified the Government. The House was more generally eager than was counted upon to adopt reasonable hours. The rules now furnish very formidable and effective weapons against obstruction, but hitherto there is ground for the better hope that all sections of the House will concur in turning over a new leaf.

One test of the complete success of the rules will be when the closure is not regarded as penal, but an ordinary incident of procedure; and though an amendment to make it automatic met with little support, there is certainly an approach to this change of view on the subject. Another incidental improvement which must follow, if the rules are to work well, is a curtailment of the length of speeches. On this subject there was some plain speaking. A few speakers on the front bench and elsewhere have had too great a monopoly of the time of the House, and have not made a moderate use of it. The House is very patient of a speaker who by any means has once got its ear, and speakers have not realized how inexpressibly tedious their long and ill-digested harangues had become. In this respect there is a beginning of improvement. A very high authority is said to have been struck by the greater condensation of speeches in some recent debates. Then the withdrawal of the hours after midnight has improved the temper of the House, because it was generally after midnight that it lost its temper.

But the most remarkable feature of the proceedings of the present session is the advance which they disclose in the growth of liberal opinions. At the opening of the session, in 1880, Mr. Gladstone's Government, in the flush of victory, was embarrassed for weeks by the opposition offered to Mr. Bradlaugh's taking his seat. The other day, with a Tory Government in office, Mr. Bradlaugh carried the second reading of his Oaths Bill by a majority of 100. The question of the reform of the House of Lords has entered into a new phase. For the first time the regular Opposition in the House of Commons has declared it is now ripe for consideration, and the debate and division on Lord Rosebery's motion show how seriously the matter is now taken up by the House of Lords itself. Lord Salisbury, echoed by the Unionist organs in the press, says that the House of Commons will not tolerate any reform of the House of Lords which will make it a stronger power in the country—which is tantamount to saying that it will not tolerate any reform at all. These critics profess to know the mind of the House of Commons better than its own members. The majority of the present House, by their recent vote, declared their opposition to reform of the House of Lords. But the number who objected to reform on Lord Salisbury's ground is infinitesimally small. Any one who supposes that such a consideration is sufficient to secure acquiescence in the present constitution of the House of Lords, is blind to the signs of the times, the signs of the present session. The argument, if good for anything, is an argument for a single chamber. But to such a change, without discussing its merits, the public mind would, at least for the present, be averse. If any change is made within a reasonable time, and that is probable,

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it will be a reform of the present second chamber, and one question will be how far the hereditary element is to be retained. Some very moderate Liberals think it would be illogical to leave any vestige of a principle which is so indefensible in theory and so incongruous with present democratic institutions. I am inclined to think it more probable (always assuming that reform comes in time) that the hereditary principle will be practically retained in defiance of logic, and that it may lie embalmed in the swept and garnished House for many a long year. If I am not mistaken, Mr. Gladstone pleaded for the hereditary principle in his address to the electors of Midlothian in 1885, as a more respectable kind of privilege, and to a certain extent a counterpoise to the ascendency of mere wealth. The sentiment of the people has still some favor for an hereditary aristocracy, and I doubt whether the democracy are bent upon extinguishing it entirely in the Legislature.

But the great landmark of Liberal progress is the Local Government Bill. The reform of municipal government and the establishment of the representative principle in towns was one of the great Liberal achievements which were made possible by the Reform Act of 1832. The Liberal party has long contended for the application of the same principle to counties, to local government outside of towns, and now it is adopted without reserve by a Conservative Government, and even extended to the government of London, the reform of which has long been the dream of Liberal reformers. Some of the important practical results which may be expected from the acceptance of the principle, such as the reform of poor-law, school, and liquor-licensing administration, are not carried out or are imperfectly carried out in the bill. But the principle is there, and even the means of extending its application are provided. It is described on both sides of the House as a thoroughly radical bill. It is incontestable—I do not think that any one would deny it—that the same bill, if proposed by a Liberal Government, would have met with the most strenuous opposition from the united Conservative party. Now, only a few faint murmurs are heard in the clubs and in the press. The Government has made resistance more difficult by handing over several millions to the local authorities from the imperial taxes, and by mixing up the budget with the bill, so that they must stand or fall together. But such precautions were, perhaps, not essential. They counted with justice on the docility of the party when a choice was to be made between power and principle. The tone of remonstrance rises no higher than an article in an evening paper which condemns the bill as thoroughly radical and thoroughly bad: strong measures are necessary in the crisis; Conservative principles are at stake. But the remedy suggested is not to vote against the bill, but to walk out.

The reflection occurs that, if the Tories pass radical measures, it may indefinitely retard the return of the Liberals to power. It may—the Liberals are well aware of it; but they will help forward the bill by every means in their power. They are accustomed to the situation. They know that most of the great reforms of the century have been carried under similar conditions. They make a virtue of necessity. The virtue is learned from necessity, but it is virtue after all, and contrasts favorably with the pliancy of opponents, the bulk of whom do not pretend that their convictions have changed.

Meanwhile, the Ministry say to themselves, Ireland will be forgotten. The Liberals say, No; real reform in England will make the misgovernment of Ireland more palpable and more intolerable to the conscience of Englishmen.

C. D.

THE POPE AND HOME RULE.

ROME, March 20.

THE relations of the Pope to the home-rule movement have been the object of so much report, in such variation of color, that I am tempted to give you an account of what is known to have been done and said, and what is the most authoritative opinion in Rome about it. In the first place, the general, and apparently almost ineradicable, belief that the Duke of Norfolk had a mission to induce the Pope to exercise some influence on the clergy of Ireland against home rule, has no foundation whatever. The Duke came here as the head of the special mission to thank the Pope for his mission of felicitation on the occasion of the Queen's jubilee, and to deliver the presents which were the reciprocation of those sent to the Queen; and when he had finished the ceremonial involved in these two acts, he returned with his staff to England. In the performance of this duty, not one word was said of a diplomatic or political nature indirectly or directly relating to the Irish question. This I am able to say on authority which cannot be contested, that of the Duke himself, and that of every member of his mission, all of whom I saw during the stay of the special mission continually, confirmed by the testimony of Catholics who were in a position to know what had passed.

When the Duke had returned to England and rendered account of his official relations, he went back to Rome at the head of the English Catholic pilgrimage, he being the chief of the Catholic nobility and gentry of the kingdom, but with no mission, secret or otherwise, from, or relation with, the English Government; nor did he ever enter into any negotiations on the subject of the Irish question with the officials of the Vatican. All reports and rumors to the contrary are without any foundation in fact. To any one who knows the Duke it is only necessary to know that this is his statement, and as he has in various forms and on different occasions distinctly declared to me that he not only had no mission of any character beyond that of the jubilee ceremonial, but had no knowledge of any mission of a political character, there is no justification for the persistence in maintaining that the Duke has either failed in his mission, or is about to return to England to report on the results of it; or in attaching to his stay or departure any political importance. The Duke is not by nature a politician or a diplomat, but a shrewd, common-sense English gentleman, a devoted Catholic, and a most loyal supporter of the Crown and the present Government. To these qualifications and that of being the hereditary representative of English Catholicism, he owes his being appointed as the head of the special embassy for the jubilee; and beyond this there is nothing.

But there is more than this to be said. The English Government is not in a position to enter into negotiation with the Pope on the question of Ireland, or to ask for any assistance from the Vatican in the arrangement of the Irish complication, for the simple reason that if concessions are asked others must be made, and there is nothing that the Government could concede in return. The Catholics are, after a period of bigotry and intolerance on the part of English public opinion quite as bad as that complained of now in Spain, placed on a footing of absolute equality, as far as depends on the law, with Protestants; and beyond this no government can go; and that this is realized by the Pope is shown by his reply to the address of the English deputation, in which he referred with special unction to the complete liberty which the Church enjoyed in England.

To obtain for Ireland privileges for the Church which it has not in England, would be too evidently chimerical for the shrewd Vatican negotiators to put such a proposition forward, as they can see (with no exceptional knowledge of English affairs) that such a concession would be disastrous to any government making it, and would be untenable; and the Church never commits the folly of making idle demands. In a Protestant country, all that the Church can hope for is perfect equality, and nobody knows this better than the Pope's advisers. The only thing that the English Government could do to gratify the Pope would be the establishment of diplomatic intercourse with the Vatican, and this is clearly seen by the Church authorities here to be impossible at present, not on account of the indisposition of the Government itself, but from the popular superstition that the Church is still intent on the overthrow of the present dynasty and the restoration of—what, it is difficult to conjecture; and the popular belief that the entire body of English Catholics are in a conspiracy to change the Government, or, as it is expressed, "They are Catholics first and Englishmen afterwards." The English Catholics are so well aware of this that they would unanimously warn the Pope against making such a demand as useless, though they know that the attainment of it would be the highest gratification to him.

Moreover, the confession of weakness on the part of the English Government in asking for outside assistance to regulate its internal difficulties would be as disastrous as the breaking down of the present policy, because it would make a foreign potentate the master of the position. Then, although the Government of Mr. Gladstone made an attempt to arrange a *quasi*-diplomatic relation with the Vatican, it is certain that a similar attempt now would be used against the present Government by the Liberals, and might lead to the overthrow of the Ministry. These are the intrinsic difficulties in negotiation with the Vatican on the Irish question. The English Government has neither entered into nor attempted to establish negotiations with the Pope on the basis of "Do ut des" with regard to the submission of Ireland, nor, so far as can be known, or is known by the supposed negotiators, *on any other political matter* since the regulation of the Goa question more than a year ago. It has (and in my opinion most wisely) left the entire problem to the deliberations of the Pope and his advisers, and with results which are entirely satisfactory, if I am accurately informed, and which, if not everything that the English Government could desire, are all that it could hope for.

The declarations, made in the most impressive and pointed manner by the Pope on occasion of the reception of the Irish delegation, are unequivocal in their condemnation of the manner in which the agitation in Ireland has been conducted; and when we confront them with the usual reticence of Papal declarations under similar circumstances, they will be seen to be very significant. The Pope said, after expressing his affection for Ireland:

"To this feeling of affection we have recently given abundant expression in sending our venerable brother the Archbishop of Damietta, with certain instructions bearing upon the present state of affairs; that we may be aided

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by his report in ascertaining the actual condition of things and the steps which, in your interest, it may be desirable to take. But in the difficulties that beset you, let what is contained in the letters addressed by us some years ago to the Archbishop of Dublin be taken as a safe and sure rule of action. This is demanded of you not only by religion, which has been the chief glory of the Irish race, but also by the public good, inasmuch as in no circumstances could the interest of the commonwealth be promoted if justice, which is the foundation of order and of all good things, were transgressed."

The reference to the letters to the former Archbishop of Dublin is conclusive. The letter of January 3, 1881, says:

"At the same time we unhesitatingly declare that it is their duty to be carefully on their guard not to allow the fame of their sterling and hereditary probity to be lessened, and not to commit any rash act whereby they may seem to have cast aside the obedience due to their lawful rulers; and for this reason, whenever Ireland was greatly excited in guarding and defending her own interests, the Roman Pontiffs constantly endeavored by admonition and exhortation to allay the excited feelings, lest by a disregard of moderation justice might be violated, or the cause, however right in itself, might be forced by the influence of passions into the flame of sedition. . . . And a little later, in the month of November, we testified to some Irish Bishops who had come to visit the tombs of the Apostles, that we ardently desired every good gift for the people of Ireland; but we added that order should not be disturbed. This manner of thinking and acting is entirely conformable to the ordinances and laws of the Catholic Church, and we have no doubt that it will conduce to the interests of Ireland. For we have confidence in the justice of the men who are placed at the head of the State, and who certainly for the most part have great practical experience, combined with prudence in civil affairs. Ireland may obtain what she wants much more safely and readily if only she adopts a course which the laws allow, and avoids giving cause of offence."

The scarcely veiled desire of the Pope in this matter is to be seen in his reference to the German difficulty. "Recently," he said to the Irish deputation, "as is known to you, the Catholics of Germany, acting with moderation and with regard for law, have, under our guidance, come safely out of a trying position. Why may not a like result through God's mercy be obtained in Ireland in a similar way?" Here the harmless ambition of the Pope appears in the desire to be invited to act as mediator between the English Crown and the Irish subjects as he had mediated in Germany—to be recognized as a prince of peace, and so finally to attain for the Papacy an authority in the political world as the great arbitrator between the nations, and a court of refuge from the quarrels which breed wars, and in this way to regain for the Pontificate a measure at least of the moral elevation which it enjoyed in the earlier ages of the Church.

W. J. Stillman.

Correspondence.

A REVIEWER'S ERRORS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There are several errors in the unfriendly review of my book on the 'National Bank Act' which I desire to correct. The reviewer says: "A most important omission . . . is that of section 5242 of the United States Statutes," etc. The reviewer was very hasty in examining the book, for the section is given on page 191, followed by a review of all the cases and subsequent legislation relating to its construction.

Again, the reviewer says: "Much of the material has been derived from sources to which no credit is given." I have given credit for every statement which is not my own contained in the book.

The reviewer also says: "The impression apparently sought to be produced is, that the book is the result of a laborious exploration of an unknown field; that the cases and opinions cited have for the first time been gathered from the State and Federal reports, and from other original documents. . . . The ground he has covered, far from being an unknown field, had previously been investigated by many explorers." It is true that the reports of the Comptroller of the Currency and several other publications contain a digest of a considerable number of cases in which the National Bank Act has been construed. The last report of the Comptroller contains a digest of twenty-one pages, a fragment compared with my book. In preparing the book, the cases were collected from the national and United States digests, which contain all the cases, under conveniently arranged heads, reported from the beginning, in the State and Federal courts. To collect these required time, but was not difficult. The labor of collecting them from the digests was as easy as it would have been to collect them from the Comptrollers' reports or other sources, even had these been complete. Every case was then examined in the book containing the original report. The indisputable proof of this is, that the numerous quotations from the cases, and references to the exact places from which they are taken in the original reports, are not in any of the publications mentioned by the reviewer. Without disparaging the usefulness of the digests made by the Comptrollers (for they serve well enough the purposes for which they are especially made), or Mr. Ball's digest, these, for the most part, are simply the reporters' head-notes of cases either in their original or in an abridged form.

If the reviewer had been a practising lawyer and familiar with cases, he would have easily perceived from my treatment of them, and the giving of a much larger number relating to the construction of the act than can be found in any other publication on the subject, that I am not in the least indebted to the labors of other "explorers." Albert S. Bolles.

New York, April 9.

MR. FOULKE AND THE HALE SENATE COMMITTEE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your editorial of March 31 you refer to my testimony before the Hale Senate Committee as to the investigation made by me regarding the removals of postmasters upon secret charges, the results of which investigation were communicated to the President, and the system ascertained to have his approval.

You speak of my referring to the *Nation* in my testimony as follows: "That distinguished organ of Mugwumpery, for reasons unknown, had never published the facts." Such language from a witness, as you know, would be unbecoming and improper, and the quotation seems to be made with the object of attributing these words to me for that reason. I used no such language, and you have no right to put into my mouth, for the purpose of imputing any prejudice or unseemly conduct, the phraseology of a subsequent article in the New York *Tribune*, however proper that might be in the place in which it appeared. As you have misquoted me in your editorial, might I venture to hope that you will make the correction in a manner which will insure equal publicity?

You further say that the reason you did not publish the facts ascertained in the investigation was that you "had not complete confidence in the collector."

The original correspondence remained in my possession, and would have been at your service at any time, if you had desired me to send it, but no such request was made, nor did I hear from you in any form. If you doubted the accuracy of my report as to the statement made by President Cleveland, there could be but little difficulty in determining whether or not he approved of the system by his conduct after knowledge of these facts had been communicated to him.

As the results of these inquiries have not yet been laid before the readers of the *Nation*, may I hope that you will be willing to do so now if I send you the report, which you are at liberty to verify from the original correspondence, now in the hands of the Hale Senate Committee?

An early reply will greatly oblige,

Yours faithfully, Wm. D. Foulke.

April 7.

[We shall be glad to see the report and deal with it as may seem proper.—Ed. Nation.]

PENNSYLVANIA TAX LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you allow me to correct a slight error in the article on "Recent American Legislation" in your issue of this date? You say (p. 276): "In Pennsylvania the mortgagee is *forbidden* to contract for the payment of taxes besides interest." The act of June 1, 1887 (Pamph. Laws, 292), to which you obviously refer, simply repeals the act of March 27, 1865 (Pamph. Laws, 57; 1 Purd. Dig., 928, pl. 8), which legalized the contract of *any borrower*, by mortgage or otherwise, to pay, in addition to the interest, the taxes assessed on the loan or its interest, so that the contract should not become usurious by the addition of the taxes. As the law now stands, a borrower can certainly contract to pay both interest and taxes, provided the two together do not amount to more than 6 per cent. per annum on the principal. Whether he can contract to pay the tax if the interest and tax together amount to more than 6 per cent., has never been decided, and it is fairly arguable that the tax, being in the end paid to the State by the lender, against whom it is assessed, is not such a payment to the lender as to be of the nature of interest at all, and that, therefore, such a contract would not be usurious.

Both laws, that of 1865 and that of 1887, the one seeking to favor the lender, the other the borrower, are, if they have any effect at all, nothing more than bungling attempts to adjust equitably that essentially inequitable thing, the taxation of personal property. C. C. B.

Philadelphia, April 5, 1888.

THE DENTAL TRUST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The communication in the *Nation* of March 22, headed "A Dental Trust," is so full of misstatements as to call for correction.

Several years ago most of the manufacturers and dealers in dental supplies formed a trade association. This was long before the formation of modern "Sugar" and other trusts, and the association has nothing whatever in common with them. There has never been any

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pooling of interests, nor any attempt to regulate the output of goods. Every manufacturer in it regulates his own prices, and manufactures as many goods as he can find a market for, without any reference whatever to the others.

The association has not "virtually succeeded" in crushing "every manufacturer that would not join them," and has not tried to do so. It has never bought and has never had any interest, direct or indirect, in any patent whatever. The individual members buy and use patents, if it suits them, without any reference to the association or to any of the other members of it. The association is simply a board of trade, holding a meeting once a year, and having a few common-sense business rules and regulations. The members are competitors in every sense of the word, as much as though no association existed. Such trade associations are common in other branches of business, and are considered beneficial rather than hurtful to the general interests of the community.

The principal dental journal of the world *is* owned by one of the members of this association. It is, however, absolutely untrue that it is conducted in the interest of any association. But even if this were true, there are besides it twenty dental periodicals published in this country, many of them not controlled by any manufacturer or dealer, so that it is an easy matter for a dentist to obtain a hearing, even if it were denied him by the "principal dental journal." If this matter is not of direct public interest, it is at least important that any statement published with regard to it should be correct.

A MEMBER OF THE ASSOCIATION.

PHILADELPHIA, April 3, 1888.

ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS IN WOMEN'S COLLEGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The writer who treats of the subject of entrance examinations in women's colleges in the *Nation* of March 29, draws a most alarming conclusion from premises which, as he states them, seem hardly adequate. In order to justify the plea with which the article closes, there should be at least a certified statement from the Presidents of Vassar, Smith, and Wellesley Colleges, to the effect that they had found the system of admission by certificate unsatisfactory in its results. We fancy some difficulty would have been experienced in obtaining these certificates. If the writer had taken the trouble to ascertain the views of the heads of these respective institutions on this subject, it might have appeared that the general experience was that students admitted by certificate sustained themselves as well as any other class.

There are many statements in the article that challenge criticism. It is assumed, for example, that principals of preparatory schools will be anxious to send their pupils to college before they are thoroughly prepared, and that colleges will be anxious to take them as soon as they can get them. Precisely the reverse of this is the case among both colleges and preparatory schools of a high order, with which class alone this discussion deals. The reputation of the preparatory school is at stake in the case of every student admitted on the principal's recommendation, and under such circumstances poorly prepared pupils are not likely to be recommended. Colleges are not anxious to increase the number of poorly prepared students. The certificate system does not increase the number of students in this way. When a student is ready to leave the seminary or high school, it is often a matter of very considerable uncertainty what is to be done next. Entrance examinations undoubtedly are a terror to very many even of those best prepared. When a student is thus halting between two opinions, the opportunity to enter college on certificate will in many cases turn the scale in favor of a college course, whereas otherwise the student would have decided to stop where he was. In this way the system of admission by certificate may operate to induce students to take a collegiate course who otherwise would be satisfied with the preliminary training.

Nor is it made clearly apparent why a system which is acknowledged to work well in connection with the State universities where both men and women are received, should work badly in colleges for women only. If such is the case, there should be some reason much deeper than any that are suggested. Michigan University counts its system of admission by certificate one of the most successful features of its administration. Recently Cornell has adopted the same system, with the following result: While 25 per cent. of the present Freshman Class were admitted by certificate, or nearly one hundred in all, only one student out of this number was dropped from the class at the end of the first term on account of inability to keep up with the class. This is the first year in which the system has been in full operation at Cornell, and the results have been far more satisfactory than was anticipated.

In reply to the statement that the weight of authority is against the system, Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Cornell, and Johns Hopkins being cited as proof, it may be admitted that the weight of tradition is against it, but we are growing unfamiliar with appeals to authority in such matters. Of the authorities cited, the only one that admits women, Cornell, has, as just stated, within the past year adopted the pernicious system; Johns Hopkins University is an institution which does not direct a very large part of its energies to its collegiate department, while Harvard, Yale, and Princeton are hardly the institutions to be referred to in discussing the higher education of women.

"Surely, it is not the function of college officers to travel about the country passing judgment upon preparatory schools." Nor is this necessary. Every student admitted to college from a given school gives the best sort of testimony as to the character of the work done in that school, and if students come uniformly well prepared, few mistakes are made in supposing that they come from good schools. As a matter of fact, if preparatory schools are not to be judged by college officers, who is to judge them? The argument from authority seems, with the above annotations, to stand as follows: The subject under discussion is the admission of students to women's colleges on certificates from approved high schools, academies, and private schools. All of the prominent women's colleges have adopted this system, and by continuing it have endorsed it. The leading coeducational State universities have adopted this system, and express their approval in no uncertain terms. The leading older colleges for men only have not adopted the system. Therefore, "It is time that those who have the true interests of the higher education of women at heart should utter a protest against this baneful system of admission by certificates, and ask that public opinion should demand a return to the honorable position held by Vassar ten years ago."

It may be on account of excessive mental obtuseness, but we really don't see the point.

C. H. T.

ITHACA, April 2, 1888.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your issue of March 29 contains an article on the entrance requirements in women's colleges, in which are various statements and implications concerning the certificate system of Wellesley College. The author has apprehended the system somewhat less clearly than he would have done had he been able to travel the fifteen miles which lie between Wellesley and Boston, and obtain information from the proper source, instead of relying upon current report. No number of corrections can ever right the wrong done by careless or prejudiced statements. At the same time, it seems desirable that, in a matter so directly affecting the credit of the College, the truth should be made known.

A student who proposes to take a B.A. degree at Wellesley College, if she enters upon certificate, must present a formal statement that she has *within twelve months* (or, in the case of certain subjects, within fifteen months) passed satisfactory examinations in English, classics, mathematics, and a certain amount of history, geography, and physical geography. If she is to take a B.S., the requirements are the same, save that modern language is substituted for Greek. The examinations may, as your correspondent states, be based upon reviews. If the student has the knowledge which is to serve as the basis for her college work, we are not unwilling that it should have been in her possession for a considerable time.

The certificates are submitted to a board of examiners consisting of five professors, each of whom has special oversight over the subjects with which she is especially familiar. The paper having been approved, its owner is admitted with the distinct, printed statement that she is on probation, and will be allowed to remain only if her work during the fall term is satisfactory. During this term her classics, mathematics, English, ancient history, and ancient geography are tested, and as a result of such tests a small percentage of the class are advised not to return after the vacation. It is, no doubt, a delicate matter to send them away. But they are conscious that they have had a fair trial; they know that the work is beyond their present powers, and they realize the strain and the unhappiness of such a position. They rarely fail to admit both the justice and the wisdom of the decision.

Now as to the weight to be attached to certificates. The permission to offer them has been accorded in all cases only after most careful investigation. It is not, as your correspondent seems to believe, a matter of chance or favoritism. Since hundreds of students are turned away every year for want of room, it is no less our interest than our duty to scrutinize most keenly the proffered credentials, and to drop from our list relentlessly any teacher who shows either carelessness or incapacity in judging his pupils.

Finally, as to the advantages and disadvantages of the system. The original reasons for its adoption were two:

(1.) To draw together for mutual attrition women from the widest possible variety of surroundings, by relieving students from the expense and inconvenience of a long journey whose result was uncertain. In other words, it was intended as a substitute for a system of local examinations, which seemed undesirable. That it has been successful in this respect is shown by the fact that during the year 1886-87 the College contained representatives from thirty-one States and Territories, as well as from eight foreign countries.

(2.) To raise the standard of scholarship in

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secondary schools, confessedly the weakest point in our entire educational system. So far as I know, statistics bearing on this matter have never been collected, but I am informed on excellent authority that the schools have responded to the stimulus by a steady improvement in the character of their work. Certain it is that the Freshmen admitted to Wellesley are better prepared each year than ever before.

Furthermore, experience has taught us that a girl who enters an examination room after a journey of considerable length (more than half our students come from beyond New England), oppressed by strange surroundings, the first onset of a homesickness that makes her almost wish to fail, and that mysterious awe of everything pertaining to a college which to many of us was once not altogether unfamiliar—that a girl who takes her examinations under such circumstances is far less likely to give a true expression of her attainments and mental calibre than if she took the same examinations at home in accustomed surroundings and free from distractions. Whether this is as true of boys as of girls, whether we should let it influence us or endeavor to control and overcome it, are not now the questions. In the existing state of things, "an examination at the college by the faculty" is not the justest way of testing a student's ability.

It is, perhaps, needless to add any distinct denial of the charge that we are influenced in the adoption of the system by pecuniary considerations. The amount of room at our command is so limited that nearly three-fourths of our applicants must be refused. Under these circumstances, to multiply applications is to multiply labor to no purpose, since an increase of receipts is impossible.

We claim, then, for our certificate system:

(1.) That it enables us to draw students from all parts of the country.

(2.) That it enables us to compare their abilities justly and with a minimum of friction.

(3.) That the standard of scholarship improves under it.

These claims we make not *a priori*, but as the result of eight years of experience with classes varying from 100 to 200, but never falling below the first number. M. A. W.

Wellesley College, April 5, 1888.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The matter of the admission of students to college on certificate invites a few remarks from the standpoint of the preparatory teacher. I believe that there are many teachers of preparatory schools, especially of high schools, who would be glad to see the whole system abolished. And they would have this feeling, not merely because of the annoyance to which they are now subjected, but because they find it very difficult, along with their other duties, to decide intelligently whether their students have satisfied the requirements, in all respects, of those colleges with whose conditions of admission they are not always familiar. The conditions prescribed at different colleges are in some respects so indefinite, and enforced with such varying degrees of strictness, that the conscientious teacher may well feel some hesitation in signing a certificate assuming *full* responsibility for his student's preparation in *all* respects. But the college-entrance examination is something of a bugbear to the high-school scholar, and when one school "enjoys" the "privilege" of sending its graduates without it, the teachers of other schools in the same section are in a certain sense compelled to secure for their graduates the same boon.

The high schools in Massachusetts are probably as well prepared to incur this responsibility as any in the country, but my own experience and observation convince me that the difficulties I have suggested above do not exaggerate the embarrassments which they often encounter.

Why should not the expedient of local examinations be extended, by the union of the collegiate institutions of New England and New York, which maintain substantially the same standard, in examinations of candidates for the Freshman classes, at central points, by committees representing all the institutions? Let separate certificates be issued for each department to those candidates who are successful, which shall be current, so to say, at all college-entrance examinations, and operate to excuse their holder at any time within one or two years from so much of the prescribed test as they represent, at whatever institution they are presented. If Harvard or any other college requires more in any department than the candidate holds certificates for, a suitable additional examination could be imposed.

In New England the public high schools have no organic connection with the colleges; the graduates of any given high school scatter among various colleges, and the present differing requirements for admission are, in a general way, a serious embarrassment in the preparation of scholars for college, and, in a special sense, a still more serious objection to the admission of scholars by certificate.

W. P. Beckwith, Supt. of Schools.

Adams, Mass., April 9, 1888.

Notes.

An American English version of the series "Les Grands Écrivains Français" has been undertaken, by international arrangement, by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago. The task of translating has been committed to Prof. Melville B. Anderson, for the initial volumes.

"The Great Cities of the Republic" series, begun by the Messrs. Putnam with 'The Story of New York,' by Mr. Chas. B. Todd, is to be continued with 'The Story of Washington,' by the same author, and 'The Story of Boston,' by Mr. Arthur Gilman.

'John Ward, Preacher,' is the title of a novel by Mrs. Deland (author of 'The Old Garden') announced by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

'Life,' by Count Tolstoi, suppressed by the Russian censorship, will appear in an authorized translation from the press of T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Thomas Whittaker publishes directly the second part of Jennings's 'Manual of Church History,' and the fourth and concluding series of 'Expositions,' by Samuel Cox, D.D.

Cupples & Hurd, Boston, announce 'Stray Leaves from Newport,' by Mrs. Wm. Lamont Wheeler; and 'Social Life and Literature Fifty Years Ago.'

'Practical Statistics: the Statistician at Work,' by Chas. F. Pidgin, Chief Clerk of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics, is announced by the William E. Smythe Co., Boston.

The Filson Club of Louisville, Ky., have undertaken a series of biographies of leading pioneers in the settlement of that State. The first achieved is the 'Life and Times of Hon. Caleb Wallace, a Justice of the Kentucky Court of Appeals,' of which the author is Prof. Wm. H. Whitsitt of the Southern Baptist Theological Seminary. A limited edition will be printed, but will not be confined to members of the Club.

The American Copyright League will issue immediately for gratuitous distribution a pamphlet on 'Cheap Books and Good Books,' by Mr. Brander Matthews. It can be obtained in single numbers or in quantities on application to the Treasurer of the League, Mr. R. U. Johnson, 33 East Seventeenth Street, or to the Secretary, Mr. George Walton Green, 11 Pine Street.

Mr. William Archer's 'Anatomy of Acting,' concluded in the March number of *Longman's Magazine*, will be issued shortly as a book, thoroughly revised and greatly enlarged, in London and New York, by Longmans, Green & Co.

Macmillan & Co. announce a volume of poems by the Rev. Stopford A. Brooke.

Chapman & Hall are now publishing in London a popular edition of the complete works of Thomas Carlyle at a shilling a volume. The books of this collection are not mere stitched pamphlets, but are cloth-bound, seemly and shapely.

A work which promises to be of interest to American historical students is one on Peter Martyr, entitled, 'Un lettré italien à la cour d'Espagne: Pierre Martyr d'Anghiera, sa vie et ses œuvres. Par J. H. Mariejol' (Paris: Hachette).

The initial number of the *Journal of the United States Cavalry Association*, for March, has come to hand (New York: Brentanos). It is well printed at Leavenworth, Kansas, and is good reading.

New, too, is the *Rivista delle Biblioteche*, edited at Florence by Dr. Guido Biagi, librarian of the Marucelliana (Nos. 1-2, January-February, 1888). It may be compared, in its general aim to treat of library economy and bibliography, with our pioneer *Library Journal*. Both these periodicals appeal to the generality of cultivated and studious persons as well as to librarians. The first article in the *Rivista* is one on the loan of codices. Dr. Biagi follows with some remarks on examinations for librarians. The third paper relates to the law requiring deposits of copyrighted books in the designated national libraries. "German Libraries Judged by a German" is an abstract of Prof. Dziatzko's paper on "The Present State of Libraries and Librarianship in Germany," read before the British Library Association. Notable is Prof. Luigi Gentile's (unfinished) discourse on the much discussed age of the oldest MS. of the 'Divina Commedia,' the so-called Poggiali; and so is G. Fumagalli's account of rare editions of the Index Expurgatorius. Reviews of technical and scholarly works, and of periodicals, with news items, fill out this entertaining first issue.

A few more subscriptions will, we understand, warrant the revival of the *Rhode Island Historical Magazine*. They may be sent to Mr. R. H. Tilley, Newport.

The April number of the *New England Historic-Genealogical Register* will contain at the head of Mr. Henry F. Waters's "Gleanings in England" documentary evidence furnished him by Mr. E. H. W. Dunkin of the exact date and place of marriage of John Harvard to Anne Sadler, daughter of John Sadler, Vicar of Ringmer. This event took place on April 19, 1636, at South Malling, near Lewes, a parish adjacent to Ringmer. Facsimiles of the binding of John Harvard's brother Thomas to William Coxe, clothworker, and of his admission to the Clothworkers' Company of London, are annexed. The "Gleanings" proper throw much light on the relationships of colonial worthies—Wilsons, Taylors, and Ludlows.

The *Auk* for July opens with a brief but interesting account, by Frederick A. Lucas, of "The Bird Rocks of the Gulf of St. Law-

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rence," in which the curious matter is the evidence of great changes in the forms and sizes of these islands since they were first described by Jacques Cartier.

The *Magazin für die Litteratur des In- und Auslandes*, having changed hands, beginning with April 1, will henceforth be published at Dresden instead of Leipzig.

Félix Buhot is the subject of the leading paper, by the editor, in *Le Livre* for March. M. Uzanne incorporates with his own appreciation of this "Illustrateur Aquafortiste" M. Philippe Burty's article in *Harper's Magazine* —of course in the original French. Numerous examples are given of Buhot's work, but the vignettes best show the strength and limitations of his powers. This number is rather rich in inedited letters of great men, derived from recent sales. One of Voltaire's, written at Cirey, October 9 [1778 ?], begins complacently: "Si Rousseau est mort, c'est un méchant homme de moins, et ses derniers ouvrages ne font pas plus regretter l'homme."

Petermann's Mitteilungen for March contains an account, by H. Rink, of Danish explorations in Greenland during 1887, and a review by the editor, Dr. A. Supan, of the recent report of H. Wild, Director of the Observatory at St. Petersburg, on the rainfall of the Russian Empire. Numerous tables are given, showing the results of observations at 445 stations, and six maps colored so as to designate the rainfall during the four seasons, as well as the total for the whole year and the number of days on which rain fell. The largest amount reported was at Sotche on the Black Sea, Poti being second. R. V. Eckert gives an entertaining sketch of the origin and wanderings of the Circassians.

Darwin's theory of subsidence as affecting coral reefs is criticised by H. B. Guppy in the March *Scottish Geographical Magazine*, from data obtained from observations in the Solomon Islands. The paper is illustrated by two maps, one being Mr. Darwin's original map showing the distribution of coral reefs, published in 1842, the other a map showing their distribution in 1888. This number also contains an account of Mr. H. O. Forbes's unsuccessful attempt to ascend Mt. Owen Stanley in New Guinea, and a paper by M. G. Mulhall on recent explorations in South America. He gives a list of railways in the Argentine Republic, in process of construction, or for which concessions have been granted, 7,455 miles in length, and to cost £57,580,000. Referring to the colonization of the country, he calls attention to the Chubut colony founded in 1863, which "now numbers 1,200 Welsh colonists, so orderly and industrious that the only crime committed there in twenty-four years was the murder of the Deputy Governor; he was killed by his own assistant, both being Argentines." Dr. Schweinfurth discusses the Welle problem, and Mr. A. S. White describes the partition of Central Africa among the European nations. Two maps, one showing the partition according to agreement, the other according to claims, accompany the article.

'The *New York Mirror* Annual and Directory of the Theatrical Profession for 1888,' edited by Harrison Grey Fiske, is welcome as an honest and elaborate attempt to give the American stage a year-book as substantial as those which are frequent in France and Germany. It is but little to say that the '*Mirror* Annual' is broader in scope and better made than the British '*Era* Almanack'; it is even worthy to rank with the solid French 'Annales du Théâtre et de la Musique.' It is not perfect, of course—we have noted not a few minor blunders, and the misprints are more abundant than of necessity; but only those who do not know how difficult it is not to blunder in a work of this kind, will be inclined to be hypercritical. The Annual opens with a Chronological Dramatic [and Operatic] Record for 1887, covering not only the United States and Canada, but also England, France, and Germany. Then follow a necrology and a dramatic bibliography for 1887, the latter somewhat inadequate, but to be praised for containing the titles of articles published in periodicals. The full text of the Inter-State Commerce Law is then given, as that act had a deterrent effect, probably quite unintentional on the part of its authors, on travelling companies. Last of all is a classified directory of all the actors, managers, scene-painters, and other inhabitants of the playhouses of this country. There is also an index; and there are half-a-dozen portraits—that of the late John T. Raymond being excellent.

"Utriusque Fortunæ Exemplar" was the inscription placed under a statue of Charles II. erected in the London College of Physicians in 1682. It was not improbably borrowed from Petrarch's Latin prose work, 'De Remediis Utriusque Fortunæ,' which had an extraordinary vogue all over Europe, in more or less complete translations as well as in the original. The bibliography of the 'De Remediis' had never been attempted when Prof. Willard Fiske began the task which now lies completed before us in No. 3 of his "Bibliographical Notices." We need hardly say that it is executed with Prof. Fiske's thoroughness, with the aid chiefly of his own unrivalled collection, of which this brochure of forty-eight pages forms part of the catalogue.

The German Government, having made the collection of works of Greek art in the Berlin Museum one of the richest and most important in the world, by the excavations at Pergamon and a generous outlay every year for the acquisition of original monuments in Greece, Italy, and Asia Minor, is now giving attention to the development of the Assyrian department of the same museum. A committee has been appointed for the purpose of investigating the respective merits of various Oriental sites, and it is believed that excavations will soon be begun on an extensive scale in Persia, which the recent investigations of M. Dieulafoy show to be a most promising country.

We hear that a portion of the old road leading from Athens to the Academy has been discovered, near the graves the discovery of which we noted some weeks since (No. 1181). It is said that this road is not paved, but is distinguishable from the soil about it by its hardness. More graves have been found in the same locality, containing vases and other objects in terracotta, glass, and bronze.

The Linnæan Society of New York make an appeal for funds for the proposed monument over the grave of Audubon in Trinity Cemetery. Contributions may be sent to Mr. L. S. Foster, in care of the Society, No. 11 West Twenty-ninth Street, New York.

A correspondent writes us: "There is nothing new under the sun—not even 'Oil Trusts.' Witness this line, Plautus's Captivi, 489:

"'Omnes *de conpecto* rem agunt, quasi in Velabro olearii.'"

—The April *Century* has a noteworthy article upon the part of Alfred Vail in the invention of the Morse telegraph, with a facsimile of the memorandum in which he claims exclusive originality for certain important details of the mechanism. The Vail family were very useful, and, in fact, invaluable, to Morse in the development of his invention, and Alfred was a part owner in the patents. The early history of the practical working out of the idea of telegraphy and of the first experiment by the Government is as interesting as such matter is always sure to be, however many times repeated; and the present account of it is well done. A second article is a critique upon Stevenson from the friendly pen of Henry James. It is preceded by a wonderful portrait which looks more like an Easter egg than anything else. It is amazing that any one should consent to the publication of such a "got-up," cadaverous grotesque as the head of a sane human being, and the memory of it pretty nearly erases Mr. James's pleasant writing, of which, judged as criticism, one recollects little more than that it is compliment rather too long drawn out. The remainder of the number only "marks time," the serials going on with no special distinction, and there being no incidental article of note. The "departments" are well filled, and in the War Papers we observe an anecdote of Gen. Hooker's execution of a poor boy after the war was over, told by Judge Dickson, which on the facts stated was military murder. It is a shocking story, but it is useful as an illustration of the processes of war, and it throws a light on the sort of cruelty that must occur unnoticed in the confusion of martial "justice." Gen. Hooker appears to have acted in this case in a spirit of revenge, but whether for Lincoln's assassination, or out of irritation at the recollection of how Lincoln refused to have men shot, is not very clear. It is bad enough either way.

—It produces a curious *ante-bellum* effect when we find a great popular organization, like the Chautauqua Reading Circle, requiring the compilers of its historical text-books to stop short as far back as the war of 1812, for fear of offending the sensibilities of Southern readers. Yet this is avowedly the case with its authorized manual of American history, as prepared by the Rev. E. E. Hale, D.D. Some inquiries on this subject having been addressed to the Principal of the Reading Circle, Rev. J. L. Hurlbut, D.D., he has the frankness to state the matter in this unequivocal way (italics ours) in the *Chautauquan* ("Notes on Required Reading for November, 1887"):

"Several letters have been received, making inquiry why Dr. Hale's American History closes with the War of 1812, and contains no account of events in recent times, such as the Mexican War, the Civil War, and the reconstruction since 1865. Many reasons could be named why in a circle such as ours these subjects should have no place as a part of the regular course of study, though there is nothing to forbid local circles taking them up. *We have thousands of readers on both sides of the line, and it would be impossible to satisfy one class without grievously offending another, in whatever way the history should be written.*"

When we consider that all the popular school histories bring down the history of the country to a period within twenty years, and that each of these circulates largely "on both sides of the line," so that in fact "the line" may be said to be practically forgotten in the book trade, it is certainly a little amusing that it should still be a reality so formidable among the doctors of divinity who conduct the Chautauqua Reading Circle and write its text-books. Have they really chanced to hear of the surrender at Appomattox and of the Emancipation Proclamation? Again, do they not run an injudicious risk in allowing their pupils to follow American history down so late as the war of 1812? There were very dangerous discussions on slavery in the very convention which framed the United States Constitution; and any narrative of the American Revolution must risk "grievously offending" their Canadian members. Perhaps it would have been better to close their American his-

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tory with the year 1492, though even then there would have remained Miss Marie A. Brown to be dissatisfied, as she seriously disapproves of Columbus, and feels no hesitation in speaking her mind.

—From J. B. Lippincott Co. we have the first volume of the new edition of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia' (A to Beaufort). The mechanical part of the work has been improved in respect to the cuts and the maps, but the typography has a too solid appearance, and does not tempt the reader or favor defective eyesight. The staff of writers, so far as revealed, is not comparable to that of the 'Britannica,' with which, however, Chambers's does not strictly come in competition. Several American scholars are on the list, and furnish copyrighted articles, but the want of editing is shown in just this collaboration. The minor American articles have not been submitted for revision to an American authority. One can confidently assert this of the brief article on the Abolitionists; and what American writer would have omitted the *date* of the battle of Antietam? Mr. S. Austin Allibone is erroneously spoken of as the *head* of the Lenox Library in this city. Our Bayard family is ignored. Delia Bacon is admitted, but not Leonard Bacon; Mary Anderson, too, but not Gen. Robert Anderson. The middle name of Hubert Howe Bancroft is not mentioned. Mr. Grant Allen's article on Americanisms is far from profound, and he is wide of the mark in pronouncing Prof. Schele de Vere's 'English of the New World' the best on the subject. "Candy," he recklessly declares, "for every kind of sweetmeat, is common to the entire Union." Under Alaska (a copyright article, but none the less needing editorial oversight) no mention is made of Mr. Dall's leading work on that Territory. But generally, the references to authorities are uneven and inadequate in this cyclopædia.

—Two excellent indexes have recently appeared, to call attention to which affords us pleasure, both because of the rarity of good work of this kind, and also on account of the importance of the matter thus made accessible. The first of these is the 'Deuxième Table Générale de la *Revue Historique* (1881 à 1885 inclusivement) rédigée par Camille Couderc, 1887.' This index, which sells for three francs, is wellnigh perfect as far as it goes, and of course much superior to that example for youth and for age to avoid, the 'Table de la *Revue des Deux Mondes*'; but we are sorry that M. Couderc was unable to free himself entirely from the vicious practice of almost all Continental indexers, of relying solely on a *table raisonnée* instead of a minute subject-index. Thus the *Table* in question gives, as is essential to a good index, an alphabetical list of authors covering five pages, then a list of articles (occupying only two pages), arranged not alphabetically, but chronologically. Following this is the "bibliographie," 98 pages long, prepared on the numerical cross-reference system. This is a list, alphabetical by authors, of all works reviewed, each entry being prefixed by a number. This is succeeded by a "Répertoire méthodique," under the classified headings of which the preceding titles are referred to. Thus, No. 4810 of the "bibliographie" is "Zwiedineck, H. von, Die Politik der Republik Venedig während des 30-jährigen Krieges, XXIII, 398," which is indexed (not under "Venise" or "Guerre de Trente ans," but) as "Italie, § Venise, Vicence, Padoue, Udine, etc., 4810." In the same way, there is no alphabetical entry of Sweden or Norway, they being entered only as divisions of the title "Pays Scandinaves." Per contra, Alsace is to be found not under Allemagne, but in its alphabetical order, as if it were an independent State. Biographies are not indexed, except in the general way of chronological entry under each country. We have noticed but few errors. Mr. Francis Parkman is not, that we know, of German origin, and does not his spell his name with a double *n*, and Mr. Henry Adams, not Mr. Herbert B. Adams, is the author of the life of John Randolph, for which, as well as for his own works, the Baltimore professor gets the credit. Prof. W. F. Allen, again, is unlawfully deprived of his first initial, and putting the French name Des Cars under C is contrary to the accepted rule.

—Another good piece of work, though not to be compared with the 'Table' in regard to minuteness, is the 'Index to the Consular Reports, No. 1 to No. 59 (1880-1885),' lately published by the State Department. Owing to the constantly increasing demand for these Reports—a demand which has induced the British Foreign Office to start a similar series—this index is likely to be widely useful. It is printed in large type, in one alphabet, and occupies 212 pages. Under the name of each consul, printed in small capitals, is a list of the subjects on which he has reported, and the subjects are entered twice, once in the alphabetical place of each, and once under its generic head; *e. g.*, "Arlberg Tunnel" is entered under Arlberg and under Tunnels. Errors are very rare. "Würtemberg" we find spelled both "Wurtemburg" and "Wurtemberg," and the name of the late Wm. Wirt Sikes, sometime Consul at Cardiff, is tortured into "Sykes, Wm. Writ."

—M. Guy de Maupassant gives the readers of *Les Lettres et les Arts* for March (Charles Scribner's Sons) three days more of the Journal of his Mediterranean cruise. This portion of "Sur l'eau" is very far from the lively and amusing cynicism of what preceded it; indeed, it is not easy to imagine anything more painfully depressing than some of these pages, of which the least harrowing present the writer under the gradually approaching and disappearing effects of ether, taken during a violent headache. For those who cherish a personal animosity towards the present realistic school, a certain amount of satisfaction may be derived from the perusal of "Sur l'eau." If M. de Maupassant's report of the effects produced upon the mental and sympathetic faculties of its disciples by the practice of their art may be trusted, existence is a torture to them. The reader may be pardoned for finding the strain upon his own sympathies somewhat relaxed by his enjoyment of the perfection of M. de Maupassant's literary form, and by a certain perception that the suffering for which he demands sympathy belongs in great part to the second and entirely literary self in the double personality which he exposes so pathetically; to the equally vivid conviction, also, that when M. de Maupassant leaves his double at peace, he is a very vigorous and healthy and well-satisfied specimen of humanity, with no lofty aspirations or supersensitive nerves to disturb his enjoyment in the very successful exercise of all his faculties. "Le Gendarme rouge," by M. Théophile Gautier *fils*, of which the second part is now given, belongs to an entirely different school. As is fitting in a story by the son of his father, the author plunges us into the full flood of romanticism as it appears in these latter days, and we find ourselves accepting the trials of the charming Javotte-et-Jacquotte and the attempts at their relief of Gaspard and Joliot, as readily as if realism had never been invented —assisted, it is only fair to confess, by the gentle irony with which both characters and situations are treated. As to the fantastic story of M. Henri Laujol, "Miremonde, conte moral," which begins brilliantly in the present number, it promises amusement at least, and the possibility of something more.

—Those of our readers who are interested in the history of commerce will find much to their purpose in two recent productions of that energetic and untiring spirit of investigation which the Germans call with pride *deutscher Fleiss*. The first of the works we refer to is 'Revaler Zollbücher und Quittungen des 14en Jahrhunderts,' by Prof. W. Stieda of Rostock. In the 138 pages of introduction the author discusses a considerable variety of topics. There is first a study of specific duties in the Hanseatic cities; then follows a dissertation on shipping in the Baltic, which contains much interesting information on the value of the ships, their form, structure, and burden, cargoes, prices, voyages, and the exports from the eastern Hanse cities. But, what is of especial practical value, Prof. Stieda has given a full list of weights and measures, with their equivalents, and copious tables of local coins. The usefulness of such tables will be highly appreciated by any one who has tried to get any information on such points out of the ordinary dictionaries, or even from Ducange. One's search is usually rewarded with the stereotyped answer, "a coin," "a measure." The text proper of this volume consists of specimens of trade documents from the city of Reval, which give one a glimpse of business methods five hundred years ago. The other work to which we alluded is from the hand of Dr. Henry Simonsfeld of the University and the Royal Library of Munich. It is entitled 'Der Fondaco dei Tedeschi in Venedig und die deutsch-venetianischen Handelsbeziehungen,' and is an exhaustive study of the history of German trade with Venice. The first volume, of nearly five hundred pages, is wholly devoted to documents running from 1225-1653, most of them in Latin. The second opens with an historical sketch of South German trade during those four centuries, taking up in particular the administration of the factory in Venice, the articles of export and import, the personnel of the trading community, routes, etc. The second half of the volume contains a list of consuls of the German merchants in Venice, a collection of epitaphs of Germans buried in Venice, supplementary documents, a useful glossary, and an exemplary index of upwards of fifty pages. These substantial volumes are published under the patronage of the Royal Bavarian Academy and by Cotta of Stuttgart.

—The Greek Archæological Society has shown most praiseworthy activity during the past few years. Indeed, when one remembers the poverty of the Greek Government and the very limited number of wealthy citizens in Greece, the enterprise of the Society is surprising, and it is a pleasure to note that its labors have met with the success they deserved, in the various sites investigated. It has shown the Acropolis to be a treasure-house of early Hellenic architecture and sculpture, to an extent one would not have believed possible a few years ago. The discovery of many fragments of pre-Pheidian sculpture on which the colors are in a brilliant state of preservation, and that of the early temple of Athena in the middle of the Acropolis, are in themselves achievements which would have amply repaid the undertaking; but during the last season the discovery of traces of a palace antedating the Hellenic civilization, and in some of its features displaying a marked resemblance to the palace of Tiryns, gives to the Acropolis an entirely new

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and unsuspected interest. By the destruction of a Turkish structure, northeast of the Erechtheion, some fragments of the northern frieze of the Parthenon have been brought to light; and, east of the Parthenon, the substructure of the temple of Roma and Augustus has been unearthed. Outside of Athens the Society has continued its work at Eleusis, Epidauros, Mykenæ (where a considerable number of tombs of the "Mykenæan" epoch—that is, in the style of the so-called Treasury of Atreus—have been opened), and Oropos in Bœotia. It is unfortunate for those of us who live so far away from Greece that the full and official accounts of these investigations follow so tardily the investigations themselves. We learn, for example, that those at Oropos have yielded very important architectural results, but must wait indefinitely for the scientific description and illustrations of them. Dörpfeld, in a brief note in the *Mittheilungen* of 1886, stated that the stage of the theatre there was of the Greek epoch and in better preservation than that of Epidauros; and last year the Archæological Society laid bare a stoa adjoining this theatre, over 350 feet in length, the front of Doric architecture, with about fifty columns, the interior divided into three parts by an Ionic colonnade. An extraordinary feature of the edifice was the metopes, which are said to have contained a long inscription.

SAINTSBURY'S ELIZABETHAN LITERATURE.—I.

A History of Elizabethan Literature. By George Saintsbury. Macmillan & Co. 1887.

THIS work, if it does nothing more, indicates a movement in the right direction. What the historians of English literature of the year 3000 A.D. will be compelled to do, the historians of less than 2000 A.D. are finding it desirable to do. The subject is too vast already to be treated satisfactorily by a single writer. Hence the necessity of dividing it into periods. The present volume—one of a series of four—is the first in order of publication, but the second in order of time. It is to be followed by one on the early literature, by Mr. Stopford Brooke; by one on the literature of the eighteenth century, by Mr. Edmund Gosse, and by one on modern literature, by Professor Dowden.

The idea of such a series is an exceedingly good one, but its value will necessarily depend upon its execution. We are bound to say that the present volume does not make us too hopeful. It is, in fact, a grievous disappointment. It is generally supposed to be incumbent on the reviewer to greet even the work which he purposes to praise with a short and subdued critical growl; but the growl in this case needs to be both prolonged and loud. We have rarely met a treatise on any subject much more exasperating. For the book has a great deal of merit in it in a certain way. It is the production of a man who has read his subject, and not merely read about it. It frequently contains striking observations, and passages which display keen critical insight. More than that, there is in portions of it a sanity of statement, a freedom from the extravagances that disfigure most modern criticism, which, if exhibited throughout, would give it a permanent place in the literature of its class. With all this it is one of the most unreadable books that ever offered themselves to be read. It will furnish little pleasure to the student who knows, and little instruction to the student who does not know.

To begin with, it is not an unreasonable thing to ask that a history of English literature should be written in the English language. This somewhat desirable qualification the work before us does not possess. As Mrs. Malaprop was quite the queen of the dictionary, so Mr. Saintsbury is quite the lord of the language. He has certainly extended its conquests further than any living writer, and from the indications contained in this volume there is no speech that is not in danger of being annexed. The reader who expects to peruse the work understandingly must prepare himself for the task by a previous knowledge of French and Italian, Latin and Greek. The last named, in particular, is an absolute necessity. "Marlowe," writes Mr. Saintsbury in his genial way, "with the fullest command of the *apeiron*, had not, and, as far as I can judge, never would have had, any power of introducing into it the law of the *peras*." Things in this volume are not of unknown origin: they are *adespota*. We can say of the author what he says of Daniel, that his English is most certainly "unweakened by purism," but cannot add his further comment upon the language of that poet, that it is "unadulterated by xenomania" (p. 136). This pedantry, in fact, is so all-pervading, it is so wantonly, not to say brutally, aggressive, that it reads almost like a joke to have Mr. Saintsbury remark that he hopes he shall not "be suspected of being ignorant of Greek" (p. 379). No misgiving of that sort, he may be assured, will once occur to the reader who is forcing his weary way through this lexical jungle. The thing he will suspect is, that Mr. Saintsbury is ignorant of English.

Bad as are the words, the sentences are worse. Mr. Saintsbury is familiar with French prose, but he has studied it carefully, with the main intent, apparently, to avoid its precision, its clearness, its happy art of saying things agreeably even when it has nothing to say. A more vicious style than prevails in this volume can hardly be found in the productions of any reputable author. There are sentences we have read and reread before we could feel sure of what the writer was aiming to say. There are sentences which we should never have understood had we not known beforehand what the writer was intending to say. There are sentences that would bring despair to the most patient and long-suffering of grammarians. The work, in fact, furnishes an almost inexhaustible supply of every kind of fault which can affect clearness of expression.

The most noticeable one, however, is caused by the fact that many of the sentences really consist of two rolled into one. They are sometimes so involved that the reader who embarks upon one of them is apt to forget the place from which he has started, and fails at the end to recognize the place at which he is landed. They are stuffed with parentheses to such an extent that the resources of the printing-office must have been tested to the uttermost to supply the run made upon the types containing these particular curved lines. The result is, that many of the sentences seem to be suffering from a sort of rhetorical dropsy. We quote part of one found on the second page, not because there is anything exceptional about it—there are scores and scores just like it—but because it mentions with praise an editor to whose merits we are glad to call attention. It runs as follows:

"Mr. Arber's remarks in his introduction (which, though I have rather an objection to putting mere citations before the public, I am glad here to quote as a testimony in the forefront of this book to the excellent deserts of one who by himself has done as much as any living man to facilitate the study of Elizabethan literature) are entirely to the point."

It is not often that a quotation serves so effectually the double purpose of pointing a moral and paying a tribute of deserved praise.

Comments upon style are not apt to be effective when coming from an author who can be guilty of atrocities such as we have described and cited. This sort of work is the more aggravating because these overloaded and obscure sentences are frequently accompanied by others clearly conceived and powerfully expressed, showing what the writer could do if he chose to do it. These latter are, unhappily, too few to affect the general estimate. The volume, as a whole, is the result of that easy writing which makes the hardest of reading. If we were to judge Mr. Saintsbury's style by it alone, we could find full justification for the view that, in the production of slovenly English, he has not only no rival among contemporary writers, he has not even a second.

This is not, however, the principal fault we have to find. While the matter contained in this volume is much superior to the manner, it is nevertheless not of a kind to arouse enthusiasm or to inspire confidence. Mr. Saintsbury assures us, indeed, that he has been diligently reading for five and twenty years the productions of the period he is discussing. But it is quite plain that he has been a student of Elizabethan literature in the same easy sense in which many of us are students of a good many things. At the very outset there are remarks made which tend to arouse suspicion as to the value of his work. His dates and biographical facts, he tells us in his preface, are generally taken at second-hand. There is not the slightest objection to this course. The assertion, in truth, gives the impression of straightforwardness and honesty. The effect of it, however, he proceeds at once to destroy by going on to say that he shall not be much concerned, or, as he expresses it, "be deeply convinced of sin," if some of the unimportant facts and dates do turn out to be wrong. It is one thing to admit your obligations to others in the matter of exactness of information; it is quite another thing to assume a jaunty air as if exactness of information upon minor points was really not a matter of much consequence, and in fact rather beneath the dignity of the gifted being who purposes to take a wide survey of literature as a whole. This is the talk of a man who is unwilling to do the lowly work upon which his lofty generalizations must ultimately be based. Correctness of detail is not the highest of virtues; but it is no contemptible quality in an historian. Mr. Saintsbury hardly seems to be aware that accuracy of statement is not an accident which varies with the importance of a subject, but denotes a habit of mind; and that the man who is indifferent about his dates is not likely to be preëminently trustworthy in the relation of any of his facts.

We see, in truth, the results of this dilettante method of study whenever Mr. Saintsbury leaves the province of special criticism to indulge in general views or to touch upon matters that demand special knowledge, and sometimes, unfortunately, upon those that do not. He is not always acquainted with the nature of the positions he criticises or controverts. The charge, for instance, which scholars bring against Spenser's language is not that he brought together the speech of different periods and of different dialects and even of different tongues, and produced a "poetic diction" that was never actually employed by anybody. It is, that his so-called archaisms are not archaisms, that they are mere verbal blunders arising from his attempting to employ the language of a time he did not fully comprehend. The result was, that he used words and forms that never had any existence at all, under the

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impression that they were archaic, and used archaic words in senses they never knew.

We had hoped that at this late day men would be no longer misled by Gifford's perverse contention that Ben Jonson's play of "Every Man in his Humor" was brought out in 1596. That editor had a purpose to serve, and was never very scrupulous in such cases about the value of his evidence. But there is surely nothing to be gained now by talking about recasts and alterations, when Jonson himself expressly tells us that "this comedy was first acted in the year 1598 by the then Lord Chamberlain's servants." We are quoting his very words, and he is not likely to have made an assertion which all his contemporaries would have known to be false. Still, this baseless supposition turns up again in the pages of this volume.

A far more reprehensible statement follows. Warton's venerable fiction about Milton, which never had a decent excuse to show for its creation, is once more retailed as an indisputable fact. "Milton," says Mr. Saintsbury, "to his eternal disgrace, flung for party purposes the study of Shakspere as a reproach in his dead King's face." It behooves him who sets out to revive exploded slanders to make himself acquainted with that (whatever it was) which first suggested them. In this instance it is a passage in the 'Eikonoklastes,' which Mr. Saintsbury has clearly not taken the pains to read. Had he done so, he would have found that he might as well have insisted that Milton was attacking the study of the Pauline epistles, because, in the very same connection and with the same end in view, he represents the Apostle to the Gentiles as the author most read and studied by one of the worst of the Byzantine Emperors. It takes but the most cursory reading of the 'Eikonoklastes' to discover the falsity of a charge which it required partisanship to make in the first place, and ignorance in addition to partisanship to repeat now. He who examines that work will find no difficulty in deciding, as between poet and critic, to whom the stigma of disgrace will attach—though in the latter case there is, for obvious reasons, no danger of its being eternal.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Deemster. By Hall Caine. D. Appleton & Co.

Leon Roch. By Perez Galdós. Translated from the Spanish by Clara Bell. W. S. Gottsberger.

Queen Money. By the author of 'The Story of Margaret Kent.' Boston: Ticknor & Co.

The Second Son. By M. O. W. Oliphant and T. B. Aldrich. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Dusantes. By Frank R. Stockton. The Century Co.

Paul and Christina. By Amelia E. Barr. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Zorah. By Elizabeth Balch. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.

Ethne. By Mrs. E. M. Field. E. & J. B. Young & Co.

The Story of an Enthusiast. By Mrs. C. V. Jamison. Ticknor & Co.

'THE DEEMSTER' imposes a standard for criticism different from any by which the mass of modern fiction may fairly be measured. The novelist who deals with primitive human passions, developing them through circumstances which lead inevitably to tragic action, challenges comparison with the creators of grand imaginative literature. The supreme virtue of such literature lies in its power to lift people to the height of its theme, and to absorb them in its action as absolutely as in thrilling personal experience. The man who achieves this effect with any sort of completeness must have something in him finer and rarer than literary talent, however brilliant and intelligently trained. Mr. Caine invites the test and stands it with honor. His subjective drama is the old and awful one of good warring with evil in the human heart. There are moments in the conflict when man's will and reason count for so little, when he seems such a puppet of passion and accident, that we can believe he has no control of the issues, and seem to be looking on at a game of dice played by God and the Devil with human souls for stakes. But the prevailing spirit is stronger and more hopeful. No man is so perfect that he may not fall into sin; none too bad for repentance and atonement. The balance hangs trembling in suspense, yet each man is responsible for its turning, subject to no arbitrary fate.

In Dan Mylrea, the great figure of the novel, the fight rages most fiercely. Here is one of those exceptional natures felt to be equal to a high destiny, seen with pain and horror to be going straight down to the gates of Hell. Nothing short of frightful calamity can stop such a man, once he has taken the wrong path, and he must know in his soul that he alone is responsible for the wrong before spiritual purgation becomes possible. The antagonistic forces that rage in Dan have less play in his father, the Bishop, and in Ewan Mylrea. It is a fit of temporary wrath, a maddening sense of final, unpardonable outrage to long-suffering love, that hurries Ewan on to his share in the culminating tragedy. It is in a moment of solicitude for the physical safety of his son that the Bishop, with his faith in God's love and mercy fallen away from him, wishes to do what would tarnish the whiteness of his life and make his very righteousness a reproach to him. The Deemster alone seems to be irreclaimably evil, and his nature has the least affinity with the universal, is largely a product of one age, one locality, and peculiar personal opportunities.

Though tragedy is foreshadowed from the beginning, and sweeps along in a current of increasing force to the end, its sternness is relieved by the form in which the novel is cast, irregular, unstudied, abounding in sharp contrasts of laughter and of tears—the form that links literature inseparably with life. The scene is in the Isle of Man, in the beginning of the eighteenth century. Time and place permit rugged picturesqueness, a certain physical storminess, and add a romantic element like that which the Venetian coloring gives to *Othello's consuming jealousy.* The singular legal forms in force when the Earls of Derby were Kings of Man, provide nice points for plot building, and the technicality by which Dan might be removed from the jurisdiction of his uncle, the Deemster, to that of his father, the Bishop, is used ingeniously. It provides an opportunity, too, for the most impressive single scene in the novel. The Bishop, bowed down with anguish great as David's for his rebellious son, pronounces the fearful punishment for Dan's crime. The moral dignity of the thought here cannot be surpassed, and we must go to the Bible for parallels in commanding simplicity and poignancy of expression.

'Leon Roch' conspicuously illustrates some advantages possessed by novelists of the Latin and Slav races for exciting intellectual interest. If civilization reaches its highest expression in the Anglo-Saxon, it is partly at the expense of originality of thought, independence of action, of much that makes study of character a useful and enlightening occupation. It is not the fault of the contemporary English and American novelist that so vital a difference as that which separates Leon Roch and his wife is quite outside of his sphere of observation, but it is the good luck of Perez Galdós that material naturally presents itself to him which may worthily be offered for the consideration of intelligent people. In the dissection of character he is not obliged to pay deference to squeamish taste and conventional moral ideas. Were he trammelled by a public opinion which shudders at plainness of speech, the character of Maria Roch would be hopelessly incomprehensible. It is easy to understand that she, a religious bigot, not capable of intellectual exertion rising to the dignity of thought, might become by degrees hopelessly estranged from her free-thinking husband. But when she is convinced that to live with him is deadly sin, when in heart and soul they are absolutely divorced, a very radical analysis of her nature is needed to explain her remaining in his house, and her furious jealousy at the thought that his love has been transferred to another woman. Whatever may be said for or against the choice of such a nature for development in fiction, once having chosen it the liberty of plain speech is a great aid to intelligibility. The author lashes Maria unsparingly, but tenderness would be thrown away on such a combination of sensuality, gross superstition, vulgar credulity, and egotistical delight in her own ineffable perfection.

Besides, she is not singled out for scarification. Leon is fully credited with uprightness, rational patience under sore irritation, and intellectual freedom, yet his self-conceit, his harsh, bourgeois didacticism, and his sweeping intolerance when finally exasperated by Maria, her priests, and her family, are put fully in evidence. Still, he always commands sympathy, and one fully believes that his moral principle sufficed him to resist the temptation offered by Pépa Fucar to a very lonely and disappointed man. His continued leniency to the Telleria family is superlatively Christian in spirit, for a more worthless pack, with a certain family likeness of impudence and malice in their worthlessness, never tried the temper and depleted the purse of a son and brother-in-law. Through the Tellerias and their associates the Spanish aristocracy is attacked with a savageness which means either that Spain and the Spaniards are going to the dogs, or that the author is a very wrathful and pessimistic satirist. All the description of the Tellerias' varied depravities, of the journalist Cimarra's scampish audacity, of the Marquis de Fucar's methods of money and title-getting, makes entertaining reading in spite of a disapproving conscience. The talk, even on trivial topics, shows the man stripped of artificial assumptions and reserves, and the descriptions have the pitiless particularity of the French naturalistic school.

Of the dearth of those features in our social life which attract the intellect and arouse emotion, 'Queen Money' is a case in point. The quotation from Horace on the title-page is happily chosen to give a name to a novel reflecting the spirit of that large portion of New York society of which Regina Pecunia is the acknowledged despot. In an early chapter there is some bright talk about American novels and novel-making. While agreeing with the cheerful Mr. Goodspeed, that American life is the proper field for American novelists, and not disputing the dictum of that king of critics, Mr. Clayton White, that it makes no difference whether a man is provincial or cosmopolitan, so long as he has something to say, we submit, on the evidence of this book and many another,

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that American life of the cities of the well-to-do, comfortable, even fashionable classes, is a shallow lake to fish in. It is not so easy to find anything to say about it worth the saying. It is a respectable, humdrum life, inwardly clean, taking on sometimes, outwardly, an affectation of Old World moral laxity, which only the exceptional person has either the desire or the courage to put in practice. It is intellectually an empty life, with feelings not so turbulent as to require studied repression; much addicted to pursuit of material pleasure—not sensual enough to imperil the soul's welfare. Passion has no home here, only makes an occasional call on Wall Street, and there for a few hours rides the whirlwind.

The author describes this life just as it is, any exaggeration being due to misconception, not to wilful or stupid misrepresentation. His regret that it is not better or more is plain, and the feeling urges him to make the most of the ardor, honesty, and good aspiration which the country boy, Otto March, brings to town with him, and of the refinement and gentleness of that home where he finds his sweetheart. He perceives, as the unhappy Mr. Charnock says, that half-heartedness is a fault of the age—a convenient absolution for Mr. Charnock and the rest of us, if we were not obliged to reflect that men and women make the age, and that, therefore, each individual is responsible for his share of its defects and virtues. For artistic purposes the author might have preferred that the indefatigable Arria White should have had a more moving grievance against her husband than his disapproval of her salad dressing, and he does faintly suggest one. If he had carried the suggestion further, he would have slandered his society. It is the American's naturally respectful attitude towards women, his innate respectability, which saves our enormously wealthy, notoriously unspiritual communities from moral corruption. It is the bad taste, the physical beauty and vivacity, the mental superficiality and idleness of the Fanny Brockways, that lead foreigners and hasty native purists to very unjust and false conclusions.

Some English reviewers, supposed to be "indolent and irresponsible," have ignored Mr. Aldrich's share in the writing of 'The Second Son.' If the collaboration had not been advertised far and near, and if Mr. Aldrich's name were not on the title-page, the neglect might be regarded as pure oversight. Whatever it may mean, it ought to be accepted as a kindness, a considerate bit of international courtesy. We know Mr. Aldrich as the author of thoughtful and polished verse, and of original, fanciful, brilliant short stories. Where is he in this tedious, voluminous account of the squabbles of an English county family? The situation which makes the excuse for a display of "language" surpassing any of Mrs. Oliphant's former triumphs, is the insistance of a most intolerant and intolerable British father, Mr. Mitford, that one of his three sons shall marry an heiress, Miss Travers. Being free to dispose of his estates as he pleases, he makes disinheritance the penalty of his eldest son's refusal to acquiesce in his matrimonial schemes. The moral to be derived from the dénouement is, that though wrong and injustice sometimes recoil on their perpetrator, the recoil is apt to come too late for the profit of the good and the punishment of the wicked. The situation has the merit of antiquity and the moral the sanction of experience; nevertheless, in neither do we discover points likely to attract Mr. Aldrich, or which he could render highly attractive. The fact is, that he is nowhere to be found, while every chapter and page exhales Mrs. Oliphant. He has politely effaced himself, or, all unconscious, been buried out of sight. Considered as Mrs. Oliphant's work, it falls far short of her greatest excellence. It is honest, kindly, shrewd, unaffected—qualities inseparable from any work of hers, but is also dull and unsuggestive, and may be commended in cases where poppy and mandragora and all the drowsy syrups of the world utterly do fail.

The sequel to the casting away of Mrs. Lecks and Mrs. Aleshine answers explicitly the question, Who were the Dusantes? If they are not so original and amusing as are the good ladies who swept their way to port through the Pacific, they are not exactly disappointing to curiosity. The adventure which brings together the owners of the comfortable dwelling-house, located on a desert island, and its temporary occupants, is one of the happy inventions that distinguish Mr. Stockton's stories from all others, good or bad. On the whole, the story is well wound up, the sailormen are provided with means permanently to testify their devotion to Mrs. Lecks, and the use to which the board money in the ginger jar is put is entirely satisfactory.

Every one knows that when a minister has preached a certain number of sermons, the labor of further production is just to turn a barrel upside down. Prolific novelists are under suspicion of trading in a similar way on the short memory of their public, but few are so heedless or so bold as is Mrs. Barr. She has manufactured 'Paul and Christina' out of the material of 'Jan Vedder's Wife,' only reversing the characters of husband and wife. It is inevitable that writers who depict life in an isolated community, varying but little in essential features from generation to generation, shall in time repeat themselves, and that their work shall finally lose its first charm of picturesque novelty. The Shetland Islands and Hebrides seem to be exhausted very speedily, for Mrs. Barr is not the only novelist whose first story about them has contained all and more than any subsequent one.

The plot of 'Zorah,' a love tale of modern Egypt, is worked out by the aid of witches, subtle poisons, and the mysterious passing to and fro of a signet ring. Mustapha Bey, the hero, has more sweet reasonableness and conscience than Orientals are generally credited with, but his gift of poetical expression and his tendency towards mysticism establish his claims to an ancestry running back to the dawn of time. Zorah, the slave girl, is thoroughly a child of the sun, a creature of only one or two impulses, doomed by herself to accomplish her sorrowful destiny. Her character appeals to Western sympathies but feebly, yet the author has invested it with pathos and not a little of a frank barbarian dignity. Many of the scenes are warm with local color, and the interest of intrigue and character is well sustained to the end.

No men ever did more to assure liberty and its blessings to remote posterity than did the ruthless soldiers of the Lord and of Oliver Cromwell, yet none have assumed to us in the lapse of time such unlovable personality. Especially during the occupation of Ulster, while the natives were being transplanted to the wilds of Connaught, do the Roundheads appear wholly cruel, hypocritical, and inhuman. The character of Roger-Standfast-on-the-Rock, the dominating personality in 'Ethne,' confirms preconceived hostility against his class. He has no vices, but his virtues are insufferable. Without taking into account the circumstances that brought him to Ireland and kept him there, there is nothing in the man that could win the love of a warm-hearted, patriotic Ethne O'Connor. His easy conquest of her affections never appears in any light but its true one—that of a novelist's ridiculously romantic assumption. It is hardly less improbable than Ethne's instantaneous and absolute relinquishment of the faith of her house and nation. The greater part of the story, couched in exaggerated phrases of Puritan cant, is exceedingly tiresome. It bears the stamp, however, of industrious historical research, and several chapters descriptive of customs of the Irish peasantry are well worth reading.

'The Story of an Enthusiast' is superlatively emotional. The people love and hate with great violence, the most frenzied working off their despair by roaming at night among the tombs of the Campagna, thereby entailing disease upon themselves, and causing sorrowful consternation to more moderate friends and relations. The immediate cause of widely diffused anguish is a picture by Raphael of a boy's head in a black beretta. The picture is sold by unfeeling and mercenary guardians, during the hero's minority, and he, with a disregard for his practical welfare truly heroic, devotes his life and fortune to finding the picture and buying it back. He cries a good deal over obstacles, but keeps up the pursuit. During a sane interlude he becomes engaged to be married, but, getting news of the picture just when the bride is awaiting him, unscrupulously leaves her in the lurch. Everywhere, wreck marks the path of his enthusiasm, and contemplation of its devastating force is not likely to mitigate a general intolerance of enthusiasts.

PAVLOVSKY'S RECOLLECTIONS OF TURGENEFF.

Souvenirs sur Tourguéneff. Par Isaac Pavlovsky. Paris: Albert Savine; Boston: Schoenhof. 1887.

M. PAVLOVSKY is the author (whether assumed or real seems to be a little uncertain) of a piece known as "Mémoires d'un Nihiliste." This was written (or arranged) by M. Pavlovsky in Italy in 1878, in consequence of what he calls "le prurit littéraire," and was entitled by him "En Cellule." It was brought to Turgeneff's notice while still in manuscript, and it was through his influence that this "étude psychologique," as its writer styles it, appeared in the *Temps* in 1879, with the title by which it is now known. It was republished, strangely (in 1885), in Hetzel's edition of Turgeneff's works. The probable cause of its being included among them is that its publication in the *Temps* occasioned a violent outburst against Turgeneff in the Moscow journals, because he had prefaced it with a laudatory letter to the editor of the *Temps*. (This letter had been asked for by the *Temps*, as a guarantee that the story contained nothing to offend the Russian censorship and to cause a prohibition of the journal in the Russian empire.) M. Pavlovsky says that he desires to reëstablish, with regard to the history of the publication of 'En Cellule,' the truth which many persons in Russia have unhappily distorted at will." But he does not make the truth very clear. In Turgeneff's prefatory letter he speaks of the paper as "autobiographical memoirs," as "the simple and sincere narrative of what the author has suffered," and praises "the accent of truth" and "the absence of idle recriminations and reproaches." M. E. M. de Vogüé, writing, after Turgeneff's death, of the Russian attacks upon him in consequence of this publication, seems to think that the great romancer may have retouched the paper a little, but adds: "It is not a work of imagination; he had it from one of his compatriots escaped from Russian prisons." But in the volume before us we find M. Pavlovsky himself always speaking

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of it as "une nouvelle," and of the prisoner as "the hero"; and he says: "The preface of the author [apparently never printed] explained how the manuscript had come into his hands" —"the author" being himself. He says also that Turgeneff's recommendation of it was as "a literary work, not a political pamphlet"; and states absolutely that "he did not correct these memoirs." Are they memoirs, or is it a story? Has M. Pavlovsky ever been in Russian prisons? The question is not a wholly unimportant one. The answer would decidedly affect one's opinion of M. Pavlovsky, and in some measure of Turgeneff, since he is involved in the curious, vague inaccuracy that veils these points.

M. Pavlovsky's acquaintance with his great compatriot it is clear was neither short nor superficial, and it gave him familiarity with many facts of Turgeneff's life that are of interest; but his book lacks that special quality which makes "remembrances" of value—the quality which creates truth out of facts. It is very instructive, not only as regards their common subject, but as a lesson in "remembering," to put by the side of M. Pavlovsky's volume the paper on Turgeneff which Mr. James published four years ago in the *Atlantic*. That masterpiece of delicate perception and vigorous expression has an admirable breadth, and the personal note of ardent and tender admiration and affection is in delightful harmony with the fuller chords that accompany it. Mr. James "remembers" that when he first met Turgeneff he "could scarcely believe that he would prove—that any man could prove—on nearer acquaintance as delightful" as that first impression. But nearer acquaintance only confirmed the impression. From first to last he found him a man whose literary distinction represented only a part of the large and luminous richness of his nature. This view finds constant confirmation even in M. Pavlovsky's pages, although an offensive tone, almost of malice, pervades the book.

Turgeneff's liberal kindness to his fellow-countrymen of both sexes in pseudo-exile at Paris was literally unbounded; and if it sometimes took the shape of befriending those unworthy of his regard, yet the unfailing touch of generous enthusiasm which made their qualities outweigh their defects in his eyes, had a noble simplicity. Not only five hundred francs here and a thousand francs there passed from his pockets into those of persons "criblés de dettes" (without his left hand knowing how his right hand was pilfering him), but he was always readily active in the deeper charity of investigating into their circumstances and forwarding their interests. And this in spite of a constitutional national indolence and indifference of disposition, and in spite of the fact that his fathering their fortunes not infrequently, as in M. Pavlovsky's case, exposed him to personal annoyance from political causes. As with other philanthropists,

> "Folks with a mission that nobody knows
> Thronged thickly about him like bees round a rose";

and though one may believe that in some of these strange and unfortunate lives there was a dramatic interest that excited his attention and stimulated his imagination and fed the sources of his art, most of them were mere beggars for one or another kind of aid.

Turgeneff organized for their benefit private charitable matinées, where he himself read selections from his own works and those of Pushkin, and Mme. Viardot sang Russian songs, and her son and daughter assisted musically. It was only among the circle of his intimates that he could find support in these good works. The rich Russian colony of the Champs Élysées stood aloof, and feared to compromise itself by contact with those whose necessities might be caused by Nihilism. His French friends had not these hesitations. Soon after the publication of 'L'Assommoir,' Zola consented to take an active part in one of these mornings, but the daring writer found himself unexpectedly the most timid of readers, and an overwhelming attack of stage fright drove him from the platform. Part of the money gained by these matinées was used for a Russian library founded and maintained by Turgeneff. He also organized a club for Russian artists, and endeavored to arrange with them regular evening entertainments, literary and musical, to which the public were to be admitted. But the presence on the first evening (February, 1881) of some well-known revolutionists raised a social storm that burst over poor Turgeneff's head when he was ill in bed, and the soirées fell under the blast.

With young authors he was in constant relations. "During the five years that I visited him," says M. Pavlovsky, "I saw in his hands the manuscripts of at least twenty-five writers. . . . I was present sometimes at his conversations with these authors"; and Pavlovsky gives a sketch of these conversations, which is one of the most interesting pages of his volume. When the author would ask, concerning something criticised by Turgeneff, how it could be bettered, Turgeneff exclaimed, "Comment? Et sais-je comment? Ce n'est pas ça, voilà tout," and would continue: "Don't think that I know how it should be, and will not tell you. To find by search the right expression is impossible; elle doit couler de source." None the less, in a letter here quoted, as interesting as this conversation, he said: "It is idle to wait for the pretended blessed hours of inspiration; if the inspiration comes, so much the better, but one should work whether or no. Not only must one work over one's phrase till it express exactly what one desires to express, and is of the very proportion and quality that one wishes, but one must read and continually study"—endeavor, in fine, to understand the laws of life. It is all very interesting, but should be read in its own place.

Mr. James speaks of Turgeneff's "beautiful faculty of talk." "He was easy, natural, abundant more than I can describe, and everything that he said was touched with the exquisite quality of his imagination." A sentence of M. Pavlovsky's adds something to this: "He had always a quiet manner when recounting anything, and in repeating what any one had said he very rarely gave any imitation of the expression of their face or of their gestures." But one day M. Pavlovsky saw him by chance represent with admirable comic ability a certain M. Boborykin giving a lecture on elocution. M. Pavlovsky adds that meeting M. Boborykin a year afterwards, he recognized him from Turgeneff's mimicry. He says, further, that Turgeneff needed only to see a person once to remember him always, and that his memory was as extraordinary for names and circumstances as for the physiognomy. And not less so for matters of literature. We are told that on hearing a line from Shakspere, Turgeneff could without much hesitation say from what play and even from what act and scene it came.

The first part of this volume is occupied with the account of Turgeneff's relations with Tolstoi, and reports of his talk about him. Later pages treat of Dostoyevsky. All this, and other passages also, we find disagreeable, and must believe untrustworthy. Turgeneff's own words about similar "reportings" come to mind: "Peut-être a-t-il rêvé tout cela. Mais, mon Dieu! quels misérables cancans!" There is also a good deal about Turgeneff's judgments of contemporary French authors. "His opinion of Victor Hugo," says Mr. James, "could not have been expressed in a few words, but admiration, of course, was a considerable part of it. I remember (on Turgeneff's lips) a brilliant description of Victor Hugo's state of mind with regard to himself (Victor Hugo), and as a corollary with regard to others. If it was deliberate and discriminating, it was also pictorial and humorous." With this preface, instead of that prefixed to them by M. Pavlovsky, we commend to the reader two infinitely amusing anecdotes of the great poet derived from Turgeneff. Here, as elsewhere, it is salutary to observe what Mr. James "remembers," what M. Pavlovsky forgets. They agree in their estimate of Turgeneff's warm admiration for George Sand; and M. Pavlovsky quotes a beautiful expression of it from a letter. M. Pavlovsky attributed to him an immense overvaluing of Flaubert. Mr. James puts it justly in saying, "He had a great affection for Gustave Flaubert, and he was much interested in Flaubert's extraordinary attempts at refinement of form and irony of matter, knowing perfectly well when they failed." There are passages of more or less interest in reference to Turgeneff's own works and mode of work; and some few short pieces of his are printed or translated here for the first time. The last fifty pages are an account by him of the execution of Troppmann.

The last words about this most admirable of writers should be Mr. James's: "He was the most generous, the most tender, the most delightful of men; his large nature overflowed with the love of justice."

Classical and Foreign Quotations, Law Terms and Maxims, Proverbs, Mottoes, Phrases, and Expressions in French, German, Greek, Italian, Latin, Spanish, and Portuguese. With translations, references, explanatory notes, and indexes. By Wm. Francis King, M.A., Ch. Ch., Oxford. London: Whitaker & Sons; New York: T. Whittaker. 1887-88.

FROM a single word, like Assumpsit, this collection ranges to any number of lines in prose and verse. In every case that calls for it, reference is (if possible) given not only to the author, but to the work and passage in which the quotation occurs. Besides the translation (often the editor's own, even in verse, when he might have borrowed), parallels are frequently introduced, or applications suggested, or anecdotes related, or witticisms attempted (*e. g.*, No. 701). Hence a certain degree of readability. These are the positive merits of Mr. King's work, and the pains he has been at to verify and locate his selections are worthy of recognition.

In other respects the execution falls far short of the editor's or of any proper ideal. He cites Bayle on "l'exactitude de citer. C'est un talent plus rare que l'on ne pense." But what may we expect when a superfluous word and syllable are thrust into such a commonplace as "Lasciate ogni speranza [o] voi ch[e] entrate"? Here rises up against Mr. King his own censure: "The more familiar the passage, the more commonly is it, in many cases, misquoted." But if we pass from alterations of this sort, and come to scholarly and typographical inaccuracies, the book swarms with them—in fact, is not at all to be depended upon. Take another line from Dante: "Non ragio*nam* di lor, ma guarda e passa"; or the proverb, "Chi é causa," etc. (No. 722). Take the famous verse of Voltaire's: "Le premier qui fût roi, fût un soldat heureux"; or the

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phrase "à *tatons*"; or the needless ligation (No. 4639), "S'il-y-a . . . , il n'y-en-a pas." Take the Greek *passim*. It seems to be Mr. King's rule to put the breathing on the first vowel of an initial diphthong (see Nos. 2875, 3750, 3754, 3907). The grave accent is freely misplaced, as, on the penult in ἄνδρα (No. 3750) and in δεῖνον (No. 1797). Two lines ending with the same word, on opposite pages, have κακὸν (No. 1788) and κακόν (No. 1797). A double accent is used without reason in ὅμιλίαι (No. 3909).

We shall not discuss the editor's scheme of omission and inclusion. Regarding what he brings, we have a right to ask first that it shall be exact and trustworthy, and, secondly, that its contents shall be readily discoverable. The alphabetical arrangement of course counts for something towards unlocking the contents, but very little. One reason is, that Mr. King is not satisfied to give the familiar quotation alone, but as often as not reproduces it with the context. "Ab uno disce omnes," therefore, cannot be found under *ab*, but must be sought under *ac*—"Accipe nunc Danaum," etc. This might have been obviated by a mechanical contrivance, as by lettering more boldly the pith of the quotation, and alphabetizing accordingly; or by an index. Of indexes Mr. King furnishes two, both inadequate and irrational and meagre. One is clumsily described as "of quotations not occurring in their alphabetical order," and under it should be found our "Ab uno disce omnes," but it is not there; while the fatuity with which the index has been compiled is shown by such an entry as "At revocare gradum"—the latter half of a quotation better known by the beginning, and a false reference, since the true text is "*Sed* revocare." The other index is English and topical, and is even more exasperating. Suppose we wish by means of it to get at the Voltairian line cited above: The two leading ideas are King and Soldier. For the former there are twenty-eight bald numerical references under "Kings," and No. 2702 happens to be included, half way down the list; under "Soldiers" there are four references, with none to what we are in search of. Let us inquire whether the "Memoriam cum voce perdidissemus" of Tacitus has been caught by Mr. King's drag-net. Twelve references under "Memory" and three under "Past" fail to reveal it. Is it then wanting to the collection? Who can affirm it, any more than in the case of "Das Ewig-weibliche," which, after having been tracked through some thirty references under "Woman," still remains in the vocative? In his introduction, Mr. King implies that he includes "the mention of the Passion of Christ by Tacitus," but the only index entry to Christ is "Christ, Order of," and one must remember that the passage begins "Auctor nominis," in order to go straight to it in No. 413. The entry just cited, let us say, is absurd in itself, since it is the *motto* of the Order of Christ of Portugal which interests the seeker, and this is easily found in its place—"Christiana militia." Mr. King translates this motto, by the way, "Christian *warfare*." But all his translations must be scrutinized, even if generally correct. Poetical license, for instance, cannot excuse "To wait for one who never comes" as conveying the sense of "Aspettare e non venire" (No. 383).

Some of the defects of the present indexes might have been repaired by an author index; but we fear that slovenliness would have crept into it also. The work is worth overhauling, but by some more competent hand than the present editor's.

Life in the Confederate Army. By William Watson. Scribner & Welford. 1888.

THIS is a personal narrative of experience in the South just before and during the first half of the war. The author, then a young Scotchman, was settled in Baton Rouge as business man and engineer. Though holding to his British allegiance, he volunteered in the Confederate Army, and went through the campaign of 1861-2 in Arkansas and Missouri, of which he gives a graphic picture. His accounts of the battles of Oakhill or Wilson's Creek, and of Pea Ridge, are excellent descriptions of so much of those fights as could come within the ken of an unusually cool and clear-headed sergeant. He subsequently went with Van Dorn to Corinth, but here his description of military affairs has no value, though it is relieved by well-drawn sketches of camp-life. Wounded at the battle of Corinth, he left the army, and in 1863 made his way out of the country.

The book makes no literary pretensions, and properly. The style and grammar are everywhere those of a man without experience in writing, and the number of errors of fact show that the author's reading was limited. His narrowness, too, is often revealed in sweeping criticisms of classes and parties about which he knew little; but in spite of these drawbacks the book is interesting and will repay perusal. The best part of it, perhaps, is his description of the state of feeling in the South in the early years of the war and in the period before it, with his shrewd observations thereon. He traces, with some prejudice, but with great clearness, the gradual change of sentiment among the intelligent non-slaveholding people of the South, by which this great body was converted from strong lovers of the Union into the most zealous defenders of the Confederacy.

"So far as my observation went at the time the act of secession was passed, the population was not unanimously in favor of it, and in most of the States the majority of the people were opposed to it. . . . But the inaction of the Federal Government and their seeming acquiescence in the movement caused many to accept the situation, and when Mr. Lincoln was inaugurated, his seeming indecision and imbecility, followed by the supposed shuffling and deceitful policy of Mr. Seward, caused a still greater number to adhere to the secession party. But when Mr. Lincoln's war proclamation was issued, calling for troops to crush the seceded States into obedience, then in reality did unanimous secession take place. The people within the Confederate States, especially those who had been favorable to union and opposed to secession, were now face to face with the situation. . . . Mr. Lincoln's Government had come into power and had been in power for more than a month, without giving any indication of its policy. That Government had shown no friendly disposition towards, or recognized, the existence of, any Union, or loyal party within the Confederate States. It had made no attempt to settle the matter by a conference and avoid war. . . .

"Of the thousands who at this time rushed to arms, I believe very few had in their minds the question of slavery. . . . The greatest number were animated only by a determination to resist Lincoln's proclamation.

"I can also assert that when the Northerners took up arms in obedience to Lincoln's proclamation, it was only to avenge the bombardment of Fort Sumter, put down the rebellion, and maintain the integrity of the Union. Anything like emancipation was most emphatically repudiated."

The composition of his company from Baton Rouge is of interest: "Planters 9, farmers 11, merchants, clerks, etc., 24, lawyer 1, engineers 4, carpenters 4, painters 3, compositors 3, bricklayers 2, iron moulders 2, gasfitters 2, sawmillers 2, gunsmith 1, tailor 1, druggist 1, teacher 1, carriage-makers 2, cabinet-maker 1, law students 2, marble-cutter 1, miscellaneous 8." The total number of the above who owned slaves, or were members of families who owned slaves, or were in any way connected with or interested in the institution of slavery, was 31; while the number of those who had no interest whatever in the institution of slavery was 55. The natives of the South were 47, of Northern States 13, of foreign countries 26. The percentage of slaveholders as well as of foreigners must have been much above the average in this company.

One of the most striking portions of the book is the description of Butler's rule in New Orleans, and of the effect produced by it upon the Western Confederate armies.

Patrick Henry. By Moses Coit Tyler. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1887.

PROF. TYLER has not only made one of the best and most readable of American biographies; he may fairly be said to have reconstructed the life of Patrick Henry, and to have vindicated the memory of that great man from the unappreciative and injurious estimate which has been placed upon it. Incidentally, he has helped to correct the notion, so common with young people, that unassisted genius, the power of glowing and ready speech, will take the place of severe and systematic labor. Patrick Henry has no doubt been the type and model of the natural orator, and, in most people's minds, of nothing else. The impression has prevailed, as Mr. Tyler says (p. 286), "industriously propagated by the ingenious enmity of Jefferson's old age, that Patrick Henry was a man of but meagre information, and of extremely slender intellectual resources, ignorant especially of law, of political science, and of history, totally lacking in logical power and in precision of statement, with nothing to offset these deficiencies excepting a strange gift of overpowering, dithyrambic eloquence." This impression has been combated and triumphantly dispelled by the work before us. It shows that, with very moderate original resources in the way of training, Henry was an industrious and systematic student, who in knowledge of law was no unworthy associate of the great lawyers of his native State. He had, it must be said, that marvellous facility of acquisition, an outcome of genius, which cannot take the place of industry—and did not in his case—but which, by its intuitive processes, gives to industry a vastly increased power.

Even his original resources were not altogether despicable. His parents were persons of good natural endowments and of good education; his uncle, William Winston, "having a gift of eloquence dazzling and wondrous like Patrick's." His early schooling was insufficient, so that his father himself undertook the charge of his education, assisted by a brother, Rev. Patrick Henry. By this uncle he was so well trained in the classics that, when he was Governor, he was able to converse with a French visitor who knew no English, through the medium of Latin. As to Jefferson's assertion that he was too indolent and too fond of sporting to improve his rather scanty knowledge of law after his admission to the bar, we have the record of 1,185 suits of which he charged fees in the first three and a half years of his practice—nearly twice as many as those of Jefferson himself in the corresponding period of time.

The proof that Patrick Henry was not a mere talker, but a man of intellectual resources and adequate training, is the most important service that Mr. Tyler has rendered to his memory. But he has further proceeded to examine the several points in his career which have been subject to censure or mis-

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construction, and almost always with the result of relieving him of a certain amount of odium. In chapter ix. he discusses the question why it was that Patrick Henry's resolutions of 1775 were opposed so vehemently as being premature, when in substance "they lagged weeks and even months behind many of the best counties in Virginia itself, as well as behind those other colonies to which in political feeling Virginia was always most nearly akin" (p. 121); when, moreover, his opponents were themselves "all fully committed to the cause of the Revolution." The answer to this question he finds "not in the resolutions themselves, but in the special interpretation put upon them by Patrick Henry." This was the necessity of war. "Others had said, 'The war must come, and will come—unless certain things are done.' Patrick Henry, brushing away every prefix or suffix of uncertainty, every half-despairing 'if,' every fragile and pathetic 'unless,' exclaimed in the hearing of all men: 'Why talk of things being now done which can avert the war? Such things will not be done. The war is coming; it has come already.'"

We have in the fourteenth chapter an interesting correspondence between Gov. Henry and Gen. Washington at the time of the Conway cabal. It commences with an anonymous letter (p. 215), "evidently by a personal friend, a man of position, and a master of the art of plausible statement," written to Gov. Henry in the interest of that cabal. This letter was at once forwarded by Henry to Washington, with a letter expressive of entire confidence and friendship. Washington, in his reply, indicates Dr. Rush as the probable author of the letter. This incident, says Mr. Tyler, "is to be noted by us, not only for its own exquisite delicacy and nobility, but likewise as the culminating fact in the growth of a very deep and true friendship between the two men." This friendship, he adds, had "but a single episode of estrangement" during their lives.

This episode of estrangement was no doubt due to the ardent opposition made by Henry to the Federal Constitution, an opposition by which Washington was much grieved, and which no doubt created a certain coolness, lasting until Henry's hearty support of Washington's policy at a later stage. This part of Henry's career—the fight against the new Constitution, and that to secure amendments to it—is described very fully, and we are enabled to understand thoroughly his attitude and motives. We suppose that there are few at the present day who will not agree with Henry and his associates, that amendments in the nature of a bill of rights, such as were actually passed, were imperatively necessary; while events have clearly shown that beyond this his apprehensions of evil from the new instrument were not well founded. His opposition was certainly not factious, nor was it carried beyond the limits of constitutional obligation; we have no doubt, however, that his feeling was so intense and expressed so intensely that it gave reasonable offence to the supporters of the Constitution, and excited a not unnatural animosity in them. Mr. Tyler hardly does justice to this aspect of his character; it seems quite certain, from his own account, that this must have had much to do, not only with the estrangement at this time, but with the bitter antagonism which Henry excited in 1775.

The warmth of feeling which made him a strong and almost bitter partisan on these occasions, is a principal element of the generous and lovable features of his character. "While the war lasted," we are told (p. 258), "no man spoke against the Tories more sternly than did he. The war being ended, and its great purpose secured, no man, excepting, perhaps, Alexander Hamilton, was so prompt and so energetic in urging that all animosities of the war should be laid aside, and that a policy of magnanimous forbearance should be pursued respecting these baffled opponents of American independence."

The peculiar merit of this work, in throwing a substantially new light on many parts of its subject—a thing seldom possible with regard to men of so recent times—is derived from the judicious use of a great mass of unprinted material, partly collected by Wirt, for the purposes of his book (but only in part used by him), partly collected within the last thirty years by Mr. William Wirt Henry of Richmond, a grandson of Patrick Henry. Especial mention is made of "a document belonging to Cornell University, written by a great-grandson of Patrick Henry, the late Rev. Edward Fontaine, and giving, among other things, several new anecdotes of the great orator, as told to the writer by his own father, Col. Patrick Henry Fontaine, who was much with Patrick Henry during the later years of his life."

In conclusion, we will repeat that while Mr. Tyler has enriched our literature with an excellent work of biography, he has done us a still greater service by showing that our greatest orator was also an industrious and careful student.

The Fleet; Its River, Prison, and Marriages. By John Ashton. Illustrated by pictures from original drawings and engravings. Scribner & Welford. 1888.

THIS is a new volume of the antiquarian works of Mr. Ashton with which he has illustrated old London life for the present age with much fulness, and usually in an entertaining way. The Fleet Prison is the subject of a comparatively small portion of the book. The river is the true subject, and the story runs for the most part with its course, beginning with very ancient times, when the region in its neighborhood was noted for the medicinal or "holy" wells which have left their names so thickly in that part of London. Of this earlier period little is known, and Mr. Ashton, as he comes down the stream from Hampstead and Kentish Town, finds its banks much more thronged with the gay citizens and apprentices out on their holiday, drinking tea or eating hot rolls and butter, or dancing or indulging in less harmless amusements, at the various spas that successively rose and fell in popularity—the White Conduit Gardens, Miles's Musick House, Sadler's Wells, and Bagnigge Wells. Many curious anecdotes and some interesting cuts recall the free fashions of the time. The stream then comes into the neighborhood of prisons, and we have descriptions and the history of the Cold Bath Fields Prison, Ludgate, and Bridewell; by the way one sees the chapel of Lady Huntingdon, the Bear Gardens and sword play, with Hockley-in-the-Hole, the thieves of Field Lane, Ely Place with its many historical associations, Fleet Market, the Gordon Riots, and the anarchy of Alsatia and Whitefriars. The manners and customs of all these localities, with many cuts, are the more interesting portion of the book.

The latter part is devoted to the Prison and to the so-called Fleet Marriages. The account is mainly of value as an example of the change in prison ways and discipline due to modern days. The freedom of the prisoners among themselves, their occupations, and the system of fees and privileges, the brutality of some of the warders, and especially of the notorious Bambridge; the tricks practised on novices, and the pathetic sufferings of some of the innocent men who were guilty of no fault but the misfortune of debt, are passed in review. It is all something of a medley of vice and coarseness, violence and drunkenness, and low comedy, but it is a lively picture of what sort of a thing life in the Fleet was, and it was in reality brutal enough to make us congratulate ourselves on the change in public morals since that time.

The Fleet Marriages, until put an end to by Lord Hardwicke's Act, were an extraordinary abuse, and some curious prints of the couples arriving in the street and getting out of the coach to get united by the first parson who caught their eyes, are reproduced. The income from these marriages was often very considerable. Walter Wyatt in October, 1748, made, according to his account-book, £57 12s. 9d., which, reckoned in our money, would give him £2,500 a year. Keith, one of the most thriving of these parsons, wrote, in a book of 'Observations on the Act for Preventing Clandestine Marriages,' that he had often asked how long the parties had been acquainted, and the generality answered not more than a week, some only a day or half a day. He celebrated thousands of such marriages. The registers were collected and kept, and may still be examined, but they are not admitted as evidence in law. Mr. Ashton's account is summarized from Mr. Burns's monograph on the subject, which is a curious episode in the history of marriage. There were some instances of two women going through the ceremony with each other, and other curious matter is to be found in these pages.

Altogether the volume, although it does not touch on the literary history of the prison at all, is an entertaining collection of antiquarian material relating to old London. It is, as is well understood, not fresh in any important degree, but a popular compendium of out-of-the-way knowledge.

The Story of Creation: a Plain Account of Evolution. By Edward Clodd. Longmans, Green & Co. 1888. 8vo, xvi, 242 pp., illustrated.

THE reviewer notes, in these days, that popular text-books of evolution appear as plentifully as demolitions of Darwin used to do a few years ago. We would not be so unkind as to suggest that they are written by the same people, though some of them have very familiar earmarks. Perhaps they may be regarded as illustrations of the law that action and reaction are equal and in opposite directions. We referred not long since to the very straightforward and simple little volume by Prof. Heilprin on this subject, and now we are offered a more pretentious contribution to the same department by Mr. Clodd.

This volume is not intended by its author to deal solely with organic evolution, but, as he explains with characteristic turgidity,

"that theory deals only . . . with the origin of the myriad species of plants and animals; and the prominence given to it in virtue of its more immediate interest makes us apt to overlook the fact that it is only a small part of an all-embracing cosmic philosophy. For whatever lies within the phenomenal—the seen or felt—and therefore within the sphere of observation, experiment, and comparison, whether galaxy which only the telescope makes known, or monad whose existence only the microscope reveals, is subject matter of inquiry, both as to its becoming and as to its relation to the totality of things. It is this more general conspectus of evolution as a working hypothesis which, if it does not explain every fact, is inconsistent with none, that the following pages are designed to give in clear, and, as far as possible, simple words.

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"Before attempting this, it is desirable to outline the phenomena which that theory explains; and the first part of this book will therefore describe such matters as the stuff of which all things are made, its combinations, affinities, and distribution; the relation, likeness, and unlikeness between the stellar and solar systems and between the earth and its fellow planets; the varied forms and conditions of past and present life, and the relation between these and the inorganic or non-living—in brief, whatever makes up the visible universe" (p. 3).

To carry out this programme in less than 250 pages, with quotations from Milton, Matthew Arnold, etc., interspersed freely, and lavishly illustrated, is indeed, as Artemus Ward would have put it, to take a large contract.

Mr. Clodd is a friend and admirer of Grant Allen, to whom this book is dedicated. Its faults are the faults of Grant Allen exaggerated, while, alas! the clear and attractive literary style, the simple yet precise mode of statement, and the flavor of wood and hedgerow, which are among Grant Allen's virtues, may be sought in vain in the pages of Mr. Clodd. We believe that the latter, while evidently a tyro in physics and an amateur in biology, has done his best to represent the cosmos in accordance with the present state of knowledge. He has compiled from excellent authorities, and much of his material is reliable and authentic. This has not prevented him, however, from referring to a fossil crawfish as an encrinite (Table, fig. 4), and classifying the tunicates among the mollusks. His is what Teufelsdröckh would term a "scissors-intelligence."

"In the kingdom of the blind the one-eyed is king," and it is possible that the very ignorant may receive some knowledge from such books as this; that the progress of true science may be less impeded by such publications, when intended to be friendly, than if the same want of power and obscurity of diction were exerted in an antagonistic spirit. In either case the slop-work is not to be commended. The get-up of the book is neat, the illustrations, though not always new, are of good quality, and the publishers have done their part well.

Ueber Lesen und Bildung. Von Anton E. Schönbach. Gratz: Leuschner und Lubensky. 1888.

THIS handsome little volume has interested us in two ways: in the first place, it is the work of a thoughtful man and a good writer upon the always engaging subject of "Culture and Reading"; secondly, it is the work of a German who, in confessing his intellectual obligations in his preface, mentions only English and American authors. "It will be noticed," says Schönbach, "how strongly Ralph Waldo Emerson has influenced my entire conception of the matters treated. I should regard it as the best result of my labors if they contribute somewhat towards making the writings of Emerson better known among us." The English writers to whom acknowledgments are made are Sir Arthur Helps, John Morley, Ruskin, and Frederick Harrison. From this list it will be noticed that the name of Matthew Arnold is conspicuously absent; nor is any mention made of what we should regard as the two most helpful books ever written upon the general subject of culture, namely, Hamerton's 'Intellectual Life' and 'Human Intercourse.' It is, however, only just to our author to remark that both Hamerton and Arnold are referred to in the body of the volume.

Naturally, the first difficulty that confronts the writer upon culture is to determine what culture is. Beginning with Seneca and the younger Pliny, Schönbach endeavors to characterize the intellectual ideals of Greek and Roman antiquity, of the Middle Ages, the Renaissance, and the modern period. Present social conditions are considered at some length, and thus the question is reached: How is culture attainable for the modern man? The various aids are discussed, and their relative efficiency appreciated. First, there is the school. The school, regarded as an institute of culture, is more and more missing its aim (it is to be remembered that the German gymnasia are more particularly referred to). The scholar suffers from over-feeding and from drill. *Specialists cram their pupils with* "Kenntnisse," but "Kenntnisse sind eben nicht Bildung; Bildung macht reif und frei, Kenntnisse nicht." As to the universities, they no longer pretend to subserve the ends of culture. Even the philosophical faculty has come to represent nothing but a vast collection of bread-and-butter specialties. Next in order, the efficacy of social intercourse is considered, and the unfortunate circumstance dwelt upon that one must be already a person of culture before his fellow-beings will give him the best they have in the way of conversation. Then attention is directed to travel, the theatre, the newspaper, none of which are ranked very high by the author as promoters of culture. Thus we are brought to the agency of books, and the bulk of the volume is taken up with reflections upon reading.

In these reflections we find a variety of topics touched upon in an interesting and suggestive manner. As will have been already inferred, Herr Schönbach is of those who "care for abroad." He is much occupied with international comparisons respecting the condition of letters and of literary taste. "Americanization" does not seem to be for him the bugbear it is for certain German patriots. He speaks almost enviously of our public libraries, in connection with those of England and Scandinavia, and comments upon the Chautauqua enterprise as evidence that the American appetite for culture is keener and more universal than the German. On the other hand, he thinks it a grave question whether culture is compatible with triumphant democracy, and looks with solicitude upon a country where "the coachman, or the mason, or the street-sweeper calls out, 'I am as good as you' to the gentleman that employs him, when the two meet *in their Sunday clothes at the ballot-box.*" Considerable space is devoted to counsel—and good counsel it is, too—with regard to reading. Of this part of the book the best portion is a discussion of Emerson's three rules, to read no book that is not a year old, no book that is not famous, and no book that does not please.

The Fall of New France. 1755–1760. By Gerald E. Hart, President of the Society for Historical Studies. Montreal: Drysdale; New York: Putnams.

THIS book consists of a paper read before the Society for Historical Studies of Montreal. It is an abridgment of the story of the "Old French War," adding no new facts, and perverting many old ones. It is not the work of a trained hand; the style is crude, and slips in grammar abound. The writer has taken pains to consult such published authorities as were within his reach, but want of close attention and a total absence of critical judgment have led him into numberless errors. He says that no ship is known to have sailed through the Straits of Belleisle before 1755, forgetting the familiar case of Jacques Cartier in 1534 and 1535, to say nothing of later instances. He speaks of Sir William Johnson as living in 1755 on the Mohawk in the "western part of New York State," and says that he went to Fort William Henry before that fort was built. In the same year, 1755, he says that the "New England colonies" had a population of 1,200,000, thinking, perhaps, that the name of New England covered all the British colonies. He cites Captain John Knox as saying that 9,580 Frenchmen were opposed to Wolfe at the battle of Quebec. Turning to the place referred to, we find that the number given by Knox is 7,520. But of such examples there is no end.

Of his use of language a few instances may be given: "Libertinous," meaning libertine, or, perhaps, libidinous. "The storming of Quebec," meaning the bombardment—Quebec was not stormed. "A precipitous rush from the grenadiers," and again, "a precipitous attack," meaning precipitate. "The reflex of the Court upon the people occasioned an apathy for national glory." "His first selection could not have been more sapient," meaning wiser. "His [Vaudreuil's] fame, sociability, and popular administration had preceded him." In the following, Mr. Hart appears as a military critic: "He [Washington] should have held his ground with probably ultimately a result of a complete rout to his attackers" (p. 16).

Here is a specimen of both matter and manner: "From the 6th of July in the morning until the 9th, Abercromby invested this fort [Ticonderoga], but, strange to say, his shot fell short of its mark, his attacks futile, and notwithstanding his numerical superiority, he was defeated in several engagements his brave opponents met him with" (p. 87). (1) Abercromby never invested the fort or even attacked it; he merely assaulted a breastwork half a mile from it. (2.) His shot did not fall short, for he attacked solely with musketry at close range. (3.) He was not defeated in several engagements, but in one. (4.) He was forced to retreat not on the 9th, but on the 8th. Here are four blunders in five printed lines, and this concerning one of the chief events of the story. They would all have been avoided if Mr. Hart had read with the slightest attention any one of the numerous authentic accounts of the affair, or even if he had consulted a good school history. The object of the Society for Historical Studies deserves all praise, but it will do well, for its own sake, to restrain the literary activity of its President.

The illustrations of the book go far towards redeeming the deplorable shortcomings of the text. They are chiefly facsimiles of old engravings, all of them interesting and several very rare. They are excellently reproduced by the "artotype" process. There is also a facsimile of a letter of Wolfe, and a photographic print, exceedingly well done, of the original portrait of Montcalm.

Under the Southern Cross; or, Travels in Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand, Samoa, and Other Pacific Islands. By Maturin M. Ballou. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1888. 12mo, pp. xi, 405.

MR. BALLOU'S previous books of travel have prepared us for the present one. The same enjoyment in travel, the same rambling looseness of style, the same vivacity and variety of observation, and the same carelessness of statement are noticeable through this book, which is full of attractive description; but there is a certain temerity in the enjoyment of what Mr. Ballou writes, because he is so often untrustworthy in statement. To mention some of the errors in the few pages devoted to the Hawaiian Islands:

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the latest eruption from Mauna Loa is given as occurring in 1868, but important eruptions occurred in the years 1873, 1881, and 1887. The diameter of Kilauea is put at eight miles instead of three, and its elevation at 6,000 instead of 4,040 feet. The heir apparent to the throne is not the King's brother, but Lydia Paki Dominis; nor can Queen Emma any longer be "almost daily seen driving out in a pony carriage," her death having occurred in April, 1885. As to cannibalism, Mr. Ballou is all wrong; within fifty or sixty years, he says, "the natives made war upon one another principally for the purpose of securing prisoners whom they roasted and devoured." The last inter-island warfare was in the year 1795, when the first Kamehameha completed his conquest of the group, and cannibalism was never a national habit of the Hawaiians, either in war or peace, though fallen enemies were sometimes devoured; and the great "rock platter" in a valley near Honolulu is still shown as the place where the roasts, known as "long pig," were carved for distribution. But there is no record or tradition of systematic cannibalism in Hawaii.

The larger part of the volume is devoted to Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand. It is equally readable and equally inaccurate. We open the book at chance, and we find that New Zealand is as far from Australia as Africa from South America. The great circle distances are about 1,250 and 1,850 miles respectively.

Errors aside, Mr. Ballou has made a readable book. Among other curious facts he states that the railways in the different colonies of Australia are of three different gauges, and that they were so constructed, to the embarrassment of travel and traffic, as a result of intercolonial jealousies.

Architectural Drawing. By R. Phene Spiers, F.S.A., Architect, Fellow of the Royal Institute of British Architects, etc. Preface to the American Edition by William R. Ware, Professor of Architecture in the School of Mines, Columbia College. Cassell & Co.

AMERICAN architects who keep the run of what is done in their profession, will not need a guaranty for the quality of anything that Mr. Spiers publishes touching architectural education; and to students, for whom this book is specially intended, Prof. Ware's cordial introduction is enough. The book is comprehensive, catholic, clear, and orderly. It covers the whole field of architectural draughtsmanship, from office tracing and the preparation of working drawings to sketching in the field and rendering perspectives for competitions. Mr. Spiers's experience as practising architect and instructor enables him, without encumbering his treatise with detail, to give at all points what is communicable and helpful in the way of method. The student will be stimulated by what is rare in books of this kind, a constant and enlightened regard for the artistic side of draughtsmanship. He may learn many good lessons outside the routine of teaching—as, for instance, when he is warned against mere tricks of handling, or is told, on the other hand, that a drawing rendered in thick lines looks richer than the building it represents, while one in very thin lines may mislead the architect himself to meagreness, and tempt him to excess of detail.

The illustrations are of real value, being reproductions of drawings by architects who are exemplary—Messrs F. P. Cockerell, Street, Norman Shaw, Waterhouse, Pearson, Ernest George, Mr. Spiers himself, and others. As we might expect from an architect of French training, the author does justice to brush work, and does not give undue prominence to pen-and-ink drawing, which facility of reproduction has overexalted nowadays, so that many draughtsmen, to their own injury, do nothing else. We must complain, by the way, for it has some currency, of his use of the word "etch" for the working up of a pen-drawing, which is an injury to its lawful signification, applied to a plate bitten by acid. The drawings represented are of all kinds, in pencil, ink-line, ink-wash, sepia, and tinting in colors. Mr. Cockerell's are most instructive examples of beauty, simplicity, and variety of method; Mr. Norman Shaw's hardly does justice to the freedom and picturesqueness of his pen-work. Mr. Bidlake's drawing of a porch of Lincoln Cathedral is a model of sureness of hand, tempered by picturesque feeling. The lithographs come as near the originals as the process allows; though gray ink is hardly a fair representative of pencil-drawing, whose accent it misses, and the sepia drawing of Mr. George is harsher in effect than any work we have seen from his hand. But the student will still find them better than any copies he can make of them.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bond-Walpole. Selections from Arrian. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Brunn, H. Denkmäler griechischer und römischer Sculptur. Part I. London: Asher & Co.
Capes, W. W. History of the Achæan League as contained in the remains of Polybius. Macmillan & Co. $1.60.
Carles, W. R. Life in Corea. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Child, Prof. F. J. English and Scottish Popular Ballads. Part V. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Marcou, J. Nouvelles Recherches sur l'Origine du Nom d'Amérique. Paris.
Metropolitan Church and Choir Directory of New York and Brooklyn. New York: M. C. & C. D. Pub. Co., 21 E. 14th St.
Page, T. E. P. Vergili Maronis Aeneidos Lib. VI. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Parr, Louise. Loyalty George. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Phillimore, W. P. W. How to Write the History of a Family: Guide for the Genealogist. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $2.
Praed, W. M. Essays. George Routledge & Sons. 40 cents.
Proctor, R. A. Old and New Astronomy. Part I. Longmans, Green & Co.
Radcliffe, Dr. C. B. Behind the Tides. Macmillan & Co.
Renan, E. History of the People of Israel till the Time of King David. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.50.
Roosevelt, T. Gouverneur Morris. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Ryder, Annie H. Margaret Regis, and Some Other Girls. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Scheler, Auguste. Dictionnaire d'étymologie française. 3e édition, revue et augmentée. Bruxelles; Muquardt; Boston: Schoenhof.
Sergeant, L. The Government Year Book: Great Britain, her Colonies, and Foreign Countries. White & Allen. $2.25.
Soliée, F. Nos gens de lettres. Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof.
Spenser, Mary C. Brinka: an American Countess. New York: Spenser Publishing Co.
Stephen, L. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XII., Conder—Craigie. XIII., Craik—Damer. XIV., Damon—D'Eyncourt. Macmillan & Co. $3.75 each.
Stevens, B. F. The Campaign in Virginia, 1781: an Exact Reprint of six rare Pamphlets on the Clinton-Cornwallis Controversy, etc. 2 vols. London: B. F. Stevens. $10.
Stokes, Margaret. Early Christian Art in Ireland. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.50.
The Tariff on Imports into the United States, etc. Indexed. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Thomas Carlyle's Counsels to a Literary Aspirant. London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co. 40 cents.
Thompson, D. G. The Religious Sentiments of the Human Mind. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Tolstoi, Count L. N. What Men Live By. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 30 cents.
Zeller, Z. Les Etats de la Ligue (1593-1594). Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof.

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